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The Content of a Liberal Education¹

IN THE minds of most people the many fields of study open to use are divided into two classes usually designated as "practical" and "cultural" and between which, to them, "there is a great gulf fixed." When we ask for exact definitions of what is meant by "practical" and "cultural" studies, the replies given are usually as vague and meaningless as they are varied. This is partly so because, as will be seen later, these terms do not apply to present-day conditions, but belong to a previous period of our history when conditions were different.

Before undertaking, therefore, to draw a comparison between different educational functions, it will be necessary to redefine the difference between lines of study in terms of present-day conditions. The term "practical" was used formerly to denote studies that were strictly utilitarian in character and were concerned with actual application to some physical performance. Cultural or humanistic studies, on the other hand, were not considered practical in a worldly sense, but had to do with the development of mind and character. In the light of our day these definitions do not hold. Today many so-called cultural and humanistic studies have a decidedly practical aspect, while many studies formerly classified as strictly utilitarian are now known to be very useful in the development of mind and character.

We may, perhaps, free ourselves from the "tyranny of words" and clear the ground before us if we reclassify the many branches of learning and study into "vocational" and "liberalizing" studies. The term "practical," through long usage, has become synonymous with manual application; while for a similar reason the term "cultural" has

¹Address delivered before the Association of Land Grant Colleges, Chicago, November 15, 1923.

come to signify the strictly literary pursuits, or is confused with the refinement or personal polish often given by educational methods of a certain kind at the expense of solid internal foundation. A person may be very refined in thought and manner and still not be liberally educated. By a vocational study we shall mean any study pursued for a definite use or for a calling of any character; while by a liberalizing study we shall mean study pursued for general enlightenment or pleasure without regard to direct use. We shall probably all agree that the greatest use any study or educational process can have is to uplift mankind mentally and spiritually; and if this is true we have a standard by which we may compare the relative values of all educational activities.

Now, previous to the present industrial era, vocational studies as we now understand them did not exist. Industry was a simple matter conducted by simple tools and processes and requiring little or no education for its various pursuits. The only forms of education were those necessary for the preparation of men who were to rule, or who were to minister as church officials. Naturally the educational content of those days consisted mostly of the so-called "humanities" and the historical and philosophical literature of the period, the relative amount of these that any man might receive depending on which of these two fields he was to be expected to enter. Of the vast importance of these studies there can be no doubt, since they contain the record of man's mundane activities and his philosophical explanations of his present existence and probable future state. Nor can we doubt the effectiveness of these studies as educational tools when we contemplate the men that have been bred on this mental pabulum. Nor will anyone deny that, so far as these fields of knowledge have disclosed fundamental truths, they are of great and lasting importance to humanity.

Modern scientific and industrial development, however, has brought with them the need of new forms of educa-

tion, and as science and the industrial field broaden these forms of education multiply and increase. The calling that today is humble and despised is tomorrow a learned and highly respected profession, its value rising in proportion as it becomes scientific. The value of these new forms of education, and of scientific education in general, has been much questioned and discussed, classical scholars often refusing to admit that these modern educational methods really bestow mental training of a high degree.

The advocates of the new methods, on the other hand, claim that not only does the study of scientific subjects lead to high mental power but that it also bestows upon the student thereof a considerable amount of liberal training. The result of these diverse views has been a beclouding of our point of view and a doubt in the minds of many as to just what constitutes a liberal education. Professor Willcox, former Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences of Cornell University, in his annual report to the president of the university in 1907, says, regarding the difficulty of organizing a college that would give a liberal education: "There is no generally accepted definition of what constitutes a liberal education either in content or mode of presentation, so that the first object (the giving of a 'liberal education') lies in the minds of students and teachers in vague and ill-defined outlines." It would seem that the term "liberal education" needs redefining in the light of modern development.

Some modern psychologists and students of educational methods now tell us that study in one particular line gives development in that line and in that line only. The study of languages gives facility in expression but does not assist in the intricacies of electrical engineering. The study of mathematics gives mathematical power but does not assist in imparting skill in public speaking; and in general the study of any one branch is of use in any other only as it bears directly upon it. The high reasoning power and exactness of the engineer may be of great use to him in

certain other lines of work but would not qualify him to exercise these same qualities as a supreme court judge. All experience seems to corroborate to a large extent the claims of these educational experts, and this at once gives us a clear view of the relation between vocational and liberalizing studies and their ultimate effect upon the individual.

In these days of specialization every man must work in a somewhat limited field. In general, the development so obtained does not, as has been shown, give him skill or knowledge in any other field. But the affairs of men are many and varied, and no man can be said to have a liberal view of humanity who does not know what its vital interests are. If, therefore, he is to be liberally educated, he must keep himself informed as far as possible regarding all important social, political and industrial movements. What, therefore, is vocational to one man is liberalizing to another. Latin and Greek may be strictly utilitarian to the archaeologist, while liberalizing to the scientist. A knowledge of some industrial pursuit will be vocational to the man who is making a living thereby, while a knowledge of the same art may be very liberalizing to a divinity student. The student of the humanities and classics can lay no claim to liberal education unless he knows something about the great fields of science and industry and the human interests involved that surround and affect him for good or ill on all sides. The student of science and the man interested in industry will find many things made plainer and his horizon greatly broadened by studying the recorded experience of those that have preceded him. No man can lay claim to a liberal training if his education has narrowed his vision so that he sees only the good in his own particular field. The most liberal of studies may be very narrowing in its effect if it is not related to vital subjects.

Now before the era of science and our present industrial system, the classical studies were, apparently, sufficient for all needs. And, while they may not have been so recognized, they were as much vocational in their effect as are

our so-called practical modern studies. True it is that the study of history and the classics does, or at least should, give a person a better understanding of the mainsprings of human thought and action, and that sympathetic outlook on his fellow-men that is the hallmark of the truly cultured man. Yet, for the callings then open to men, these studies were as vocational in character as many of our modern specific curricula.

With the advent of modern industrial methods came a tremendous change in our social and political organization and our point of view regarding the philosophy of existence. The older philosophies of life did not contemplate great physical comfort or high mental and spiritual attainment for all men. These were, of a necessity, for the few when industry was conducted by handicraft; but they are now possible for all with our multiplied powers of production. This is now almost universally recognized and becomes more firmly fixed in the minds of all men as universal education, made possible only by these new methods, becomes more and more effective. If I interpret the spirit of American democracy aright, we are committed in this country to an effort to attain universal well-being where all will have not only the necessities of life, but some measure, also, of mental and spiritual opportunity.

As a consequence of these new methods and ideals there have arisen problems in social and political organization that have no counterpart in history and differ from anything contemplated in the old humanities and classical studies. They are in fact *new humanities*, and who shall say they are not as important as any that have gone before? Is the study of the tremendous changes now taking place in our social and political fabric, with its complex components of socialism, single tax, equal suffrage, universal education, industrial legislation and regulation, compulsory sanitation, and the great economic considerations resulting therefrom, less important to humanity, physically, mentally and morally, than a study of ancient forms and dogmas that have no

bearing on present-day existence? Most certainly they are not, if we judge these matters by the standards which we laid down in the beginning. These are things that are of vital interest to all men and the study of which is truly liberalizing; they are real humanities, and the older humanities and classical studies will survive only as they can be interpreted to assist in these new problems or inspire men to higher planes of thought and action.

The humanities are not, as some would have us believe, matters that belong to a distant past. They *flow* in an unbroken stream from our experiences with life. There is not, nor can there be, any stopping point for this flood. *The humanities have been, they are, they will be* and, of a necessity, they will contain in times to come many things undreamed of in the past. The test of excellence is application; and as men measure all older forms of recorded experience and philosophy by the standard we have laid down, they very naturally, in accordance with the law of the survival of the fittest, discard those that are not helpful, just as they also lay aside outworn creeds, useless religious dogma and hollow outward form.

What is needed is an interpretation of the older forms of recorded experience in terms of present-day problems—a new astronomy from the old stars. Uplifting influences must be active, not passive. This need has already been recognized and met in many subjects. History, for instance, is no longer a dry and dusty record of kings and their misdeeds; it has been vitalized greatly by drawing from it conclusions that may guide us in our present needs. The church in all progressive countries has recognized that, if it is to save the souls of men, it must take increasing cognizance of temporal conditions; and scholars of the finest type are endeavoring to so interpret their chosen fields that they may be helpful in present-day problems. This is the kind of scholarly work that is worth while. At no time in the history of man has help of this kind been so much needed. The outcome of the social and political changes

of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries is more pregnant for good or evil to all humanity than that of any other period of history, and posterity will study these changes with far greater interest than we of today study the story of the French Revolution or the Fall of Rome. The practical application of this viewpoint is already well under way. The problem of securing a liberalizing content in engineering curricula, for instance, has long been a difficult problem for educators. Slowly this content begins to appear from out the nebulous mass of experiment and speculation. Any comprehensive account of this development is beyond the limitations of this discussion, but it may be of interest to note that this liberalizing content appears to be mainly *economic* and *historic*; economic in so far as it will enable the engineer to understand modern industrial problems and historic so far as it may help him to visualize the problems of humanity and the contribution his profession may make toward their solution.

In all probability, furthermore, this content will be secured without adding to the length of the curriculum, but rather by condensing and making more efficient the present courses of instruction so as to make more room for liberalizing studies. That this can be done has been very ably demonstrated here by Dr. Mann, and there is much corroborative evidence that our technical courses can be abbreviated and still be made more efficient.

Granted, then, that educational processes are specific in their effect and that, as a consequence, some lines of study are more liberalizing than others, it does not follow that all of those who avowedly follow these more liberalizing studies are, or will be, liberally educated. We hear men who are interested in so-called liberal studies deplore the fact that students in other branches are lacking in what, to them, seem to be essentials of liberal training. Men in these other branches make similar remarks regarding students in these same so-called liberal studies; and both are probably right.

The great majority of college students, men and women,

in all courses, are necessarily undeveloped mentally; and whether they eventually become liberally educated men and women depends on many things besides the particular studies they pursue in college. Since the world began, it has been recognized that putting a brush in a man's hand does not make him an artist, nor does the reading of books of a particular kind make him a scholar. Eating is a far different function from digesting, as some of us know, and by similar reasoning no study has any power *per se* to bestow a liberal mind on anyone.

Quite a number of years ago Plato, in the Protagoras, pointed out that the sons of Pericles, though surrounded by the best influences that Greece could offer, did not promise to amount to much, and he there also very clearly points out the limitations of educational processes. Some men will become liberal-minded in spite of educational processes, while others, though they may never leave the atmosphere of liberal study, will, like the sons of Pericles, give little promise of development along these lines. (Perhaps if they could once breathe a less liberal atmosphere, for a while, their chances would be better.) Some of the best engineers and scientists that I know are also among the most liberally educated, and in many cases they did not obtain this training in college; in fact, some of them have not been to college. On the other hand, we have many eminent scientists and engineers that have had exceptional opportunities for liberal study at college and who have remained narrowly educated though standing high in their chosen professions. Men who are great scholars in one or more lines are often very narrow-minded and intolerant regarding other matters, while there are other scholars whose very presence is an inspiration and whose point of view is as refreshing as an ocean breeze. No one who has any knowledge of university communities would be so bold as to say that all students in so-called liberal courses will become liberally educated.

For the law of Mendell is more potent than most of us

are aware. Homers, Shakespeares, Kelvins, and Edisons do not come at the beck and call of educational methods. Men of genius arise in all lines most unexpectedly and from most unexpected sources; we have never been able to predict their coming or hasten their advent. Sometimes they use the elaborate educational structure we offer them and sometimes they sweep it impatiently aside, create new methods of their own, and change the map of their chosen field, not with our aid, but in spite of our methods.

In a modified way this is true of all. Every man and every woman comes into the world possessed of certain potentialities, no two bringing the same combination. The best we may do is to provide facilities to assist each one to develop the characteristics that are desirable and to suppress those that are undesirable. We can give them such instruction, in a narrow way, as will help them to become self-sustaining citizens and may perhaps, as they pass down the somewhat narrow corridor of the university curriculum, open up such side doors as will give them some idea of the great problems of human existence with all its hopes and fears, and some glimpse at least of liberal training. In a democracy, that takes cognizance of all, this means an educational system so broad that it will include all movements looking to universal betterment and must necessarily include many things that formerly were not considered important in educational work. It means also that since men are not cast in the same mold we should be careful not to make misfits by trying to force them all into some standardized shape. We have already erred sufficiently in this direction.

Above all let us keep an open mind in all things educational. *He is most liberally educated who has the most comprehensive grasp of man's vital problems and sympathy therewith.* Let us not forget the object of all educational methods as conceived by a present-day democracy and as we have already defined it, for it differs radically from any that have gone before. Educational methods, and particularly those of our higher institutions, tend naturally, I

fear, to grow away from the needs of the many and toward the desires of the few; to put *culture* before *service*. Ex-President Woodrow Wilson very forcibly voiced this view when he said: "The universities would make men forget their common origins, forget their universal sympathies. The great voice of America does not come from seats of learning. It comes in a murmur from the hills and woods and the farms and factories and the mills, rolling on and gaining volume until it comes to us from the homes of common men. Do these murmurs echo in the corridors of universities? I have not heard them."

There can be little doubt but that this statement of this great educator-statesman holds true in whole or in part for many institutions in this country and elsewhere. It is probably less true of the Land Grant Colleges than of any others, and certainly does not apply to those portions of the Land Grant Colleges that represent Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts. Here is a group of institutions resting upon a most liberal foundation, the cornerstone of which is the Morrill Act, the Magna Charta of liberal American university education; and which proclaims in no uncertain manner that these colleges "shall teach such branches of learning as are related to Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." They are concerned, therefore, with the very roots of universal well-being and constitute one of our greatest hopes of its full realization. May they flourish like the proverbial bay-tree and may those who direct their destinies keep, ever, an open mind.

DEXTER S. KIMBALL.

Tendencies in Professional Education'

THE QUESTIONS raised in this paper have no special local significance. They apply to Texas or Minnesota or Washington as well as to New York. They are of as much moment to Harvard or Vanderbilt or the University of California as to the University of Buffalo. My purpose is to give you my own personal view of a large national problem in the field of higher education. With that view you may or may not agree, but the problem is of peculiar importance to the membership of this association. It is one with which nearly all the institutions in this body are obliged in some fashion to deal. If I seem iconoclastic, I hope you will not ascribe it to impulsiveness or a desire to be sensational. The criticisms of certain sacred practices and beliefs which I am about to offer are the result of somewhat mature reflection and of more varied contact with all kinds of educational associations and regulating bodies all over the United States than I suspect any other individual has been privileged to have.

I often wonder what must be the conclusions of a foreign observer who has followed through statistical reports the extraordinary growth of American higher education during the last twenty-five years. (I am credibly informed that there are foreigners who read these forbidding documents which are here so generally ignored.) One thing the foreign student must surely note which some of us are inclined to overlook—that is, that university education is rapidly becoming professional education. As far as the facts are revealed by statistics, it appears that we now have a score or more of well-recognized professions where only a few years ago

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there were but three or four. It is evident that longer periods of time are being devoted to training for the older professions and that year by year the training periods for the newer professions are being extended. It appears also that the professional divisions of universities and the independent professional schools not included in university organizations enroll an overwhelming majority of the students who are now receiving higher education.

If the foreign student has a sense of historical perspective, he must be struck by the sudden reversal of the balance of power as between professional education and higher education of the non-vocational type. Twenty-five years ago it was quite the other way. University education, so called, was chiefly college education, liberal training for nothing in particular. The professional schools were regarded as mere appendages to the universities. Those which were then comparatively new, such as schools of engineering and agriculture, were held to be greatly inferior in dignity. Schools of law and medicine, although not the objects of social discrimination, were generally treated as stepchildren by the administration. Their welfare was not of equal concern with that of the college of arts and sciences. These emotional attitudes the foreign reader could not, of course, be aware of. But he has seen the preponderance in numbers swing away in a little span of time from liberal education to professional training. He must conclude that professional education is now the principal business of American universities.

And he is right. But do *we* realize it? This situation which the statistical reports reveal has stolen upon us silently and, as it were, in the night. Have we yet adjusted our thinking to it? University administrators—and in that category I include presidents and secretaries and deans and members of boards of trustees—are, with the rarest exceptions, products of the old regime, graduates of colleges of arts and sciences, still under the spell of that romantic period of life which no one, thank heaven, ever quite out-

lives. The deans of professional schools and the presidents are, of course, forced to contrive ways to meet the exigent necessities of the professional divisions. But am I unfair in assuming that the majority of administrators fail to see the present picture of university education in its true perspective? Is it unjust to say that the complicated and constantly shifting problems of professional training have received relatively little attention? Professional education is indeed bristling with problems. I should like to attempt to catalog them for you if I had the time. But I will content myself with noting and stressing, with all the emphasis at my command, one or two. The chief, I am sure, may be stated in a double question. Who is to determine the content of professional training, and how is it to be determined? Before I ask you to consider my answer to that question I should like to have you take the foreigner's bird's-eye view for a moment of another aspect of our recent educational development.

Within twenty years—yes, within fifteen years—we have utterly succumbed to the vice of standardization. Elementary schools have been standardized, secondary schools have been inspected, approved and classified, colleges have been standardized by a score of different agencies. Professional schools are being drawn more and more rapidly and irresistibly into the vortex of the standardizing movement. The movement is—extraordinarily enough—absolutely coincident with the great swing toward professional education. The coincidence, I think, is purely accidental. Nevertheless it has had, and apparently will continue to have, a profound effect upon the quality and prospects of professional education.

Do not misunderstand me. I am not condemning the standardizing movement as a whole. That would certainly be ungracious of one who has participated in it in rather a wholesale fashion. The time came in the development of American education when state standards, regional standards, and in some fields national standards, had to be estab-

lished. We suddenly found ourselves with an enormous educational enterprise comprising elementary, secondary and higher training which had grown up largely in response to local demands and under local control, and which was not coordinated. Somehow it had to be ordered. In the interests both of students and of parents, movements from one institution to another had to be facilitated. At the same time the integrity of honest educational endeavor had to be protected. It is a sad fact, but one that must be recognized, that the educational scheme of the United States harbored many pirates and thieves and confidence men. It likewise furnished refuge for many equally dangerous, if well-meaning incompetents. Fifteen years ago there were literally hundreds of institutions, colleges, academies, medical schools, law schools, and dental schools that were selling to the public—and generally at a considerable profit to their backers—educational gold bricks. These places had to be shown up—that is, measurements sufficiently objective had to be devised for excluding them forever from the society of those institutions that were honorably striving to advance the cause of education. The standardizing movement has done this showing up. The excluding process that has resulted from it is nearly 100 per cent complete.

If it were necessary and if I had the time, I could cite many examples to demonstrate the salutary effect of standardization. I will content myself, however, with allusion to the example which is the most conspicuous. I refer to the standardization of medical education. In 1910 there were 162 medical schools (so called) in the United States. Some were proprietary and run for profit. Others, although attached to universities and colleges, were in little better case, living comfortably on fees, carrying on their activities practically without scientific equipment. The great new empires of knowledge applying to medicine, which had recently been won, remained for both these groups *terra incognita*. These schools were sending out annually a great stream of graduates, many of whom were a positive menace

to the public. At the other end of the scale there were a few institutions that had constantly imposed upon their students high requirements. Their professors had contributed largely to the creation of the modern medical sciences. The universities with which they were connected had found the money needed for expensive scientific equipment. But before the law there was no difference between the latter and the former groups. The graduates of all medical schools received the same degree. What visible distinction was there between an M. D. from Johns Hopkins and an M. D. from some third-story-back "medical school," buried in an obscure part of a great city and known only to its promoters, its students and the state office which registered its charter?

In 1910 the epoch-making report on medical education by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching appeared. It described these conditions in detail. It named each school and painted a picture of each which has never been accused of being complimentary. While this report was in process of preparation the American Medical Association, which represents the whole medical profession, very courageously took steps to follow it up when it should appear. The Association imposed upon its recently created Council on Medical Education the task of inspecting and classifying medical schools. This early inspection was carried on under incredible difficulties. It was met by opposition, chicanery and, I am almost tempted to say, crime, at the hands of those who wished no public scrutiny of their activities. Nevertheless it was completed in due time, and as a result of it the first of the famous classifications of medical schools appeared.

The effect of that classification was almost magic. Under the burning light of publicity the disreputable medical colleges literally melted away. Ill-equipped and unintelligently administered medical schools that were attached to otherwise reputable universities were speedily improved or were discontinued by the university authorities. The Council has revised its classification from time to time and has sought

both to define more precisely the standards of medical training and gradually to raise the requirements for entrance into medical schools and for graduation from them. It has also persuaded state legislative bodies to include, in the laws governing medical licensure, specific educational requirements. With no legal authority of its own the Council has been able, through the single medium of publicity, absolutely to transform medical education in the United States. Instead of 162 medical colleges we now have 83. The majority of those are included in the first class. Certain of the others appear about to expire. Training for medicine everywhere presupposes the first two years of a college course. State boards in a large majority of the states admit to examination for licenses to practice medicine only those who have had this preliminary education. Medical schools, under pain of the Council's disapproval, have found the means to improve their physical facilities to a degree that no one would have deemed possible a dozen years ago. Thus medical education in the United States has been raised to a level where it bears comparison with training for this profession anywhere else in the world.

If this is what the standardization movement produces, you may ask why anyone ventures to criticize it. The reason is that it produces some other things as well. From every point of view the standardizing of medical education at the hands of the American Medical Association is the most successful and the most beneficent of all the standardizing enterprises. But let us note some of the evil effects which even this enterprise has had.

Any standards have to be defined in objective terms, or else they are hard to defend. What purely objective measures can one apply to an educational institution? Thus far we have devised only one kind. The only measures we can use are quantitative and material. We can count the number of dollars invested in an educational plant. We can count the number of persons employed by an institution for full or for half time. We can count the number of

hours spent on this subject and on that, the number of years devoted to this or to that phase of training. We can count the income which a certain endowment fund will produce. We can combine all these counting operations in a series of paragraphs and define one of them as units, another as semester hours, another as income from productive funds and so on, and out of it all comes a standard. Practically all the standards now applied to educational institutions are of this order. But does any intelligent person believe that human efficiency can be accurately measured in this way? Does anyone believe that institutions, which are like human beings, organic, developing, variable, can in the long run be stimulated by a process so mechanical?

The standards set up by the American Medical Association, like all the others, deal to a large extent with externals. A medical school to be approved must require two years of pre-medical training in a college of arts and sciences, which in its turn is approved and which requires at least 15 high-school units for admission. The pre-medical course must contain so many hours of chemistry, so many hours of physics, etc. The staff of the medical school must have so many instructors giving their full time to medical teaching. The school must have such and such physical equipment and a specific amount of income from endowment funds or from taxation. It must require for graduation so many years consisting of so many hours of instruction. The essential soundness of the American Medical Association's procedure lies in the fact that it goes beyond these mere externals. Its classifications are based on inspection. The sympathetic and intelligent estimate of the inspectors is the final factor in determining the rating that any school receives.

But if the standards of the American Medical Association are applied in this way, what harm can have followed their adoption? In the first place medical faculties all over the United States have come to think of medical education chiefly in quantitative terms. It consists of 800 hours of

anatomy, 360 hours of physiology, 500 hours of surgery and so forth. If students do not meet the expectations of their instructors, more hours are added in this subject or in that. If medical faculties make this mistake, it is not surprising that state examining boards and state legislative bodies follow them in it. State board requirements for admission to the examination for license to practice medicine now generally specify in such minute detail the time allotments in the several branches that almost no freedom is left to the medical schools to alter their procedure for the improvement of medical education. But undoubtedly the most serious result of the work of the Council on Medical Education has been the effect of its example upon other professional bodies. Because medical standardization has so clearly raised the status of medical training, most of the other well-organized professions are now beginning to follow the lead of the American Medical Association.

For instance, the American Dental Association has created a Dental Educational Council which has set up standards for dental schools and has classified the dental schools of the country on the basis of their conformity to these standards. The American Bar Association, like the medical and dental bodies, has a Council on Legal Education. Within two years this council has proposed standards for law schools and has been authorized by the Bar Association to proceed to classify the law schools of the country, using these standards as criteria. The latest adventurer in this field is the National Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties, acting jointly with the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy. The pharmacists in their turn have devised an elaborate set of standards, wholly quantitative, and propose to use them in a nation-wide classification of schools in pharmacy. The ferment is going on also in other professional groups. Standards for schools of home economics and veterinary medicine are being projected. There has been considerable discussion of the possibility of classifying engineering schools. For the past two years various educational

bodies have worked on the definition of standards for institutions devoted to the training of teachers. Very evidently the standardizing of professional education is not going to stop with the three or four professions that have thus far actively engaged in it. It is on this account that I believe it is worth while for the universities now to take the whole situation under review. Indeed, they must soon speak or forever after hold their peace.

Every administrator in this gathering knows that the pressure exerted by the dictum of a national standardizing agency on any individual institution is absolutely irresistible. Literally, a professional school cannot survive if it meets the disapproval of a strong standardizing body. If, therefore, one of these professional standardizing agencies—which, you will remember, is backed by the organized opinion of the profession—should choose to say what shall be taught, the university would probably follow the prescription. Thus far the standardizing bodies have with admirable wisdom and self-restraint refrained from designating the content of courses of instruction. There is a single exception. It lies in the field of medical education. The Council on Medical Education has not prescribed the curriculum of medical schools, although it has made certain recommendations bearing upon it, but it has prescribed in considerable detail what shall be taught during the two years of the pre-medical course in colleges of arts and sciences. Probably the inclusion in the pre-medical curriculum of each one of the elements which compose it can easily be justified. Nevertheless, I think its prescription was a great mistake. If time permitted, I believe I could argue the proposition that the content of the pre-medical curriculum could be vastly improved. But that is not the point to which I wish to direct your attention. What I would emphasize is the fact that a professional body outside the university has usurped the function of the university in defining a course of study. Moreover, the course of study it has prescribed is not in the professional school but in a division

of the university with the problems and purposes of which the professional advisers cannot be familiar. One is tempted to wonder whether this fact may not have made the prescription easier. But however that may be, the precedent established by the American Medical Association in this respect gives grounds for apprehension. Neither the lawyers nor the dentists have yet attempted to say anything more than that there shall be one or two years of college work as a preliminary to professional study in law or dentistry. But signs are not wanting that when their respective classifying enterprises are further advanced, either or both of them may hand down from Mount Sinai the perfect pre-professional curriculum, which the colleges will then be respectfully requested to accept.

Let me summarize my estimate of the virtues and defects of the standardizing movement in professional education. There must be standards, as objective as possible, to protect the public against bogus institutions and to stimulate and tone up professional education. Published classifications of professional schools are the most effective device for eliminating or improving the unfit. As long as standardizing bodies recognize that their definitions and classifications are necessarily only partial, good is likely to result from their activities. On the other hand, standardization of professional education is fraught with great dangers. The dangers threaten both the professional schools and those divisions of the educational system devoted to preparatory training. The most serious danger is that the action of standardizing bodies is likely to be followed by the enactment of statutes or the promulgation of regulations governing preparation for professional licenses. Such statutes and regulations tend to freeze professional education into the form which it has at the time of their adoption, and so to defeat progress. The standardization of medical education furnishes an example which may turn out to have important effects. It has led certain other professions to imitate the medical procedure and to copy the requirements set

up for medical schools without sufficient inquiry as to whether these are necessary for or appropriate to training for other professions. The prescription of the pre-medical curriculum was a mistake. The prescription by other professional bodies of the content of pre-professional education may be expected, unless the universities take steps to prevent it. Such prescription, particularly when it is reinforced by law, represents about the worst calamity that can happen to collegiate and secondary education at the present moment.

The country is on the verge of a wholesale readjustment of secondary and higher liberal education. A redistribution of teaching materials and functions as between the secondary school and the college is generally recognized to be necessary and everywhere impends. Any professional requirements which tend to crystallize the existing organization of colleges and secondary schools will greatly retard this readjustment. They may defeat it for a generation. Perhaps we might view with less concern the possible definition by an outside body of the content of pre-professional or professional training if we could be assured that the definition would rest on anything more substantial or scientific than mere opinion. But we do not now have that assurance. However, this is a matter that I will elaborate in a few moments.

If you have not forgotten the questions which were raised at the beginning of this paper I am now ready to offer answers to them. Who should determine the content of professional training? Certainly not state legislatures. Neither should state examining boards undertake the task, unless they should come to develop greater insight and flexibility than they have thus far shown. Standardizing committees working under professional organizations ought not to attempt it. They are inclined to see only the advantages and necessities of the particular profession concerned. The social demands for professional service, which should impose definite limitations on the time required for profes-

sional preparation, are likely to receive little consideration at their hands. They are likely also to disregard the effect which their prescriptions may have upon the educational system as a whole and especially upon the general plan of university education.

My own view of the matter is that the determination of the content of professional training should be a joint undertaking. It ought to be carried on cooperatively by the universities and by the national organizations of the several professions—and I include pre-professional education as a part of professional training. Definitions of the content of professional training should concern themselves only with an irreducible minimum. They should allow—and again I include the pre-professional field—the widest freedom for experimentation. No one is now satisfied with the training provided for any profession. The proceedings of the great professional associations are annually filled with lamentations. Thoughtful members of the lay public have also long been critical. The only remedy thus far attempted has been the piling up of time requirements; and this has not effected a cure. It is important that new devices be invented and tested. It is still more important that new principles be applied—new principles both of psychology and of pedagogy. Unless the professional schools are accorded greater freedom than is now granted them by certain of the regulating bodies, they cannot play their part in developing these new devices and principles. It is apparent that the intimate cooperation of the professional associations and the schools which I advocate has not existed in every professional field. But it can easily be secured. The necessary organs exist. Whenever the universities are ready, they can secure it through the American Council on Education, which is the agency they have themselves created to serve them in large cooperative undertakings.

My second question was: How should the content of professional education be determined? The current practice is to have it determined by the recommendations of a

committee. But every such committee that I have ever heard of, whether it was legislating for a single institution or for a national organization, has contained one or more members who could see nothing but the claims of their own subjects. By making themselves disagreeable these persons are generally able to force the committee to include in the proposed course of study larger amounts of their respective subjects than the other members believe to be justifiable. In many cases the resultant course of study represents a compromise between the opposing views of specialists, a compromise that suits nobody and that is hard to defend on educational grounds. But this is the way that courses of study have always been made. It is the only way we know. Is there any prospect of discovering a more reliable method?

I believe there is. It seems strange that it never occurred to anyone until quite recently that if we wish to find out how to train persons for a given occupation we should study the occupation. I do not mean to subject the occupation merely to crude and casual observation, but really to study it; to resolve it into its elements, to analyze its operations, to record statistically their frequency and importance, and so to discover what information and what qualities the persons need who are going to practice it. Within the last ten years the idea that this may be a useful thing to do and that the results may have a bearing on occupational training has gained some currency. The training enterprise of the army during the war is chiefly responsible for the development and spread of this concept. Since the war a number of technical institutions which prepare young people for industry have begun to conduct analytical studies of the occupations for which they train and to modify their curricula as a result of these studies. Is anything to be gained by attacking the professions in the same way? I am sure there is. For instance, how much chemistry does a man need to know in order to begin the practice of medicine? How much Latin does a pharmacist actually employ in his business? No one could give reliable answers

to these questions today. But the answers could be found. The operation would take time and it would be expensive, but there would be nothing impossible about it, if the universities were convinced that it is worth while. I am persuaded that if all the well-organized professional occupations were thus analyzed the results of the analysis would furnish an objective guide for the determination of the content of professional curricula.

Lest you think me wholly visionary, may I call your attention to the fact that one such analysis of professional education is now going forward? The Commonwealth Fund is subsidizing a study of pharmacy which is designed to show the information and the skills necessary for the successful practice of that profession. The progress that has already been made with this investigation indicates that the task is possible. The technique which is being developed could apparently be used in the analysis of other professional occupations.

One result that may be expected from this kind of investigation, which is of great importance not only to university administrators but to the general public, is the determination of the length of time necessary for a given course of professional training. In the days when superstition was even more prevalent than it is now 7 was regarded as the perfect number. The magical properties which this number was supposed to have have now been transferred, in the minds of the academic public, to the number 4. No course of study can possibly be worth anything unless it is four years long. To a heretic, like the writer, this has always seemed the craziest of obsessions. If it has been fairly well demonstrated that it takes four years to prepare a doctor for his work, does that prove that precisely the same length of time is needed to train a county agent, an engineer, or the manager of a cafeteria? But professional degrees in agriculture, engineering, home economics and many other branches that I do not need to mention can be secured only upon the completion of a four-year course. Law schools have been

the only conspicuous professional institutions that have been able to do with less time and still maintain their dignity. And now come the pharmacists who have functioned comfortably for a generation with a two-year course and demand four years of professional training, to be preceded eventually by a year or more of college education. Is it unreasonable to suggest that the length of the period of professional education should be determined by the demands of the profession, and that training for certain professions may be fully completed in three years, whereas others may require five or six? Unless the number four actually possesses these mysterious virtues which its worshipers ascribe to it, an enormous social waste is involved in the present plan of training for large groups of professions. The kind of analysis of professional education which I am advocating should settle with absolute definiteness the question of the required length of any professional course.

This paper, which has been longer and more diffuse than I could wish, is not intended to stir you to immediate action. I propose no resolutions for the association to consider. Even if my estimate of the dangers inherent in certain present tendencies in professional education is correct, immediate action is not necessary. I desire only to throw these questions, together with my answers to them, into your midst for such later consideration or discussion as they may seem to you to deserve.

S. P. CAPEN.

Examinations and Mental Tests¹

THIS AFTERNOON I would like to speak briefly of the place and the function that examinations occupy in collegiate education, to indicate how far recent experiment with new types of examinations have gone and what the results of those experiments show us.

What is the use of an examination anyway? Is it merely an attempt on the part of the older generation to prevent the younger generation from competing too soon? Does it serve an educational purpose for the individual, or is its usefulness purely institutional?

It seems to me that the examination does serve a distinct and important educational and moral purpose for the individual. It stimulates each student to review the subject of his study as a whole rather than as a succession of lessons, and also encourages the fine habit of coming up to a test prepared to the best of one's ability to deliver certain results at a fixed time and place. Life is full of these occasions for all of us. The ablest man who carries the greatest responsibilities is examined by his colleagues more critically than college students ever are. Consequently I can see no adequate reason for excusing any student from examinations. To do so deprives him of a part of his education.

There is a second purpose that the examination may serve for the individual. Everyone recognizes the fact that in natural ability and in temperament some children are incompetent to proceed in school beyond the grades. Others reach their natural boundary after a couple of years in the high school. Still others who are able to finish high school would waste their time and effort in attempting to do work of

¹Address delivered before the Association of American Universities, Charlottesville, Va., November 9, 1923.

collegiate grade, and so on up the scale. Few would claim that every person should be carried along by our school system to a certain fixed point whether or not he has the ability to comprehend it. Most of us would agree that our system of education should provide the opportunity for each individual to carry his education as far as his talents warrant, and that when this point is reached the fact should be determined and he should discontinue his advancement in that direction at that point. But we are far from realizing either part of this ideal. Financial considerations, lack of adequate information regarding the possibility of continuing in school, failure to get the right advice at the right time, poor judgment as to what is of permanent importance, all combine to prevent many able students from pursuing their education as far as they should. On the other hand, a sure means of determining that a given individual has reached his natural educational boundary presents a difficult problem, which is only partly solved. One fact is certain. Tests and examinations are necessary as an aid to personal judgment in reaching conclusions of this kind. If the matter is left to the desire of the student, ambition and determination would be the only qualification for promotion to the next higher step on the ladder of education. Important and even essential as these qualities of character are, they must be supplemented by ability and training in order to justify advancement.

On the institutional side, examinations are necessary in order to distinguish those who should be awarded our degrees from those who should not. It is a pity that either students or teachers need to think so much about degrees. The thirst for education is purely an affair of the spirit. The desire for a degree has to do with the satisfaction of requirements. The man whose eagerness for education is so intense that he is willing to forego the degree for the sake of the education is so rare as to cause very little disturbance in our academic procedure.

Every university attempts to establish requirements for

its degrees which correspond as closely as possible to the educational needs of its student body. Nevertheless, in any college students sometimes find that the requirements for the degree run counter to their personal welfare. For a few students the study of as much modern language or mathematics as is required for the degree could better be replaced by something else. But to authorize special treatment for such special cases with justice to all requires more wisdom than college deans or faculties possess. Consequently degree getting in any given institution comes down to meeting the requirement for the degree in that institution. This means examinations.

In this discussion it is necessary to assume that the examination is a part of our educational system, and that it is worth our while to make it an accurate instrument. The well-known scholar who stated that the only proper method of reading examinations is all the time to keep one paper in the air would not be interested in this subject. Neither would the professor who advised one of his instructors that every moment spent by him outside the classroom in thinking of his teaching was time wasted. If we admit, reject, promote, or expel graduate students, an elementary sense of justice would demand as accurate a method as we can devise for reaching the various decisions.

This subject is receiving the careful attention from many able investigators in an attempt to supplement the personal estimate of the instructor regarding his students by some more objective criterion. In Columbia College we have been experimenting with certain new types of examinations for five years. We now have a very considerable body of data regarding the results, and feel justified in drawing a few conclusions.

In the first place, we attacked the problem of admission to college. For the past few years one of our alternative plans of admission to college has consisted of four elements:

1. Certification from high or preparatory school.
2. Character record.

3. Physical examination.

4. Thorndike Intelligence Examination.

Roughly speaking the certification from the school is supposed to indicate whether the student has covered his preliminary work adequately.

The Thorndike examination is supposed to indicate whether he has the native ability to profit by a college education. Just what the mental test measures I do not know. Whether it is intelligence or not it is hard to say until one defines exactly what one means by intelligence. But I do know that it indicates more definitely and accurately than anything we are familiar with whether the boy will succeed in Columbia College. It does not indicate industry, determination, financial resources, or honesty, so far as I can see. Hence, boys who have a high mental test sometimes fail to realize their possibilities on account of failure in one of these qualities of character.

During the first two or three years of our use of this test we experimented a good deal in order to find out how far the test could be trusted. We repeated the test many times for the same individuals in order to determine what variations might be expected on different days and under different conditions. The variation in score for the same boy is found to be slight; in fact, only 3 or 4 points on a scale of 120. Even now we repeat the examinations for boys who are physically indisposed or under any kind of temporary handicap on their first trial. We also frequently repeat the test in cases where the result shows marked variation from what the school record, the principal's recommendation, or the personal interview would lead us to expect. But the cases when the second trial differs materially from the first are very few. Ability as indicated by these tests seems to be quite invariant for a given individual.

The accuracy of the test in predicting college success is demonstrated by a wealth of experiments and statistics which we have gathered.

The correlation between two-year (freshman plus soph-

omore) scholarship scores in Columbia College and the scores in the three criteria for admission is as follows:

Thorndike Test.....	.67
Regents' Examinations.....	.64
School Marks.....	.26

Most of the senior class graduating in 1923 took the Thorndike Test as a part of their entrance examinations to college. It turned out that 60 per cent of those making Phi Beta Kappa were among the highest 10 per cent on the Thorndike Test four years before.

At the other end of the scale the figures are also interesting. During the year 1921-1922, 254 individuals, or about 12 per cent of the entire student body, were on probation for poor scholarship for one or more half sessions. Of course the reasons for this action vary widely in the case of different men. Lack of ability, laziness, too much work for support, too much time spent in commuting, over-attention to student activities (study is never included among "student activities") all contribute to swelling the probation list. It is, therefore, significant that only one-fourth of the men on the probation list were above the median of the college on the Thorndike Test. Practically no men with very high Thorndike marks were on this list.

At the end of each session it is customary to write a note of appreciation to each student in the college who has done his academic work with distinction. A grade which if maintained for the entire course would entitle a student to a consideration for Phi Beta Kappa usually warrants such recognition. During the year 1921-1922, 415 students received such letters. Of these men only 16 per cent were below the median of the college on the intelligence test.

I could continue giving figures until both you and I reached a state of complete exhaustion. We have realized that we were trying an educational experiment. We did not know how it would turn out. Consequently we have left

no stone unturned to discover the facts. These facts all point in one direction, and indicate that a plan of admission that involves the Thorndike Test as one of its important features affords us college students far more competent to do the work that we require than any method that we know.

Since the introduction of the Thorndike Test the percentage of men who are forced out on account of poor scholarship has been cut in half, although our scholarly requirements have been lifted during this interval. By this method, therefore, we are spared the unfortunate experience of dropping a large number of men on account of an inaccurate estimate of their competence on their admission to college.

It has been observed earlier in this paper that the entrance examination marks possess substantially as high prognostic value of college success as do the results of the Thorndike Test.

What advantage, then, in using the Thorndike Test? I will mention three: First, the average time consumed by the student in taking the entrance examination averages about 15 hours, while the Thorndike Test requires only 3; second, the expense of preparing and reading the entrance examinations is very much greater than that involved in the shorter test; furthermore, only a very few colleges admit by examination alone. It is, therefore, very desirable to provide some simple test which enables one to compare the academic promise of the various types of students presenting themselves. For example, in Columbia College sometimes over half of our students come from New York State, and consequently take the Regents' Examinations. Others come from more remote points and either present examinations of the College Entrance Board, or merely the certification of their preparatory school. The mental test enables us quickly to obtain a fairly accurate and comparative idea of the entire list of applicants.

In comparing two sets of data like the results of the Thorndike Test and college accomplishment, any correlation

that is higher than the reliability of either set of data would be illusory. We have made a very careful study of the reliability of our college marks. I will not pause to give in detail an account of the many angles from which we have attacked this problem. But the upshot of it all is that the reliability of the mark that indicates college success seems to be about .70. Hence in getting a correlation of .67 between the Thorndike Test and the college marks we are getting all that could be expected from the data that we were obliged to use.

This stimulated us to attempt to increase the accuracy of our college marks by modifying the type of examination employed. The new type of examination consists, as many of you know, of numerous so-called true-false statements, completion tests, and recognition tests. Although they are much more difficult to prepare, they possess many virtues that the more usual type of examination does not enjoy.

The usual essay type of examination in history or economics, for example, may fairly be said to be easy to prepare, laborious to read, difficult to score, not coextensive with the subject matter of the course, accompanied by irrelevancies as necessity for writing long answers, coachable to a high degree, lacking any possible unit for a marking scale. It does, however, serve a useful purpose and seems to give the instructor who knows a student a fairly clear picture of his state of mind at the time of the examination.

The new type is, on the other hand, laborious to prepare, somewhat expensive to print, almost entirely objective, non-coachable, coextensive with the subject matter of the course, and easy to grade. In fact, the grading may be done by clerks.

This type of examination has been used in most of the departments of Columbia College on application by them, and once used has never been given up. It has raised the reliability of college marks in the various departments from the range of .35 to .67 up to the range of .75 to .95, with an average at about .85. I can illustrate the effective-

ness of this type of examination by experience gained in a course in English in which a great deal of outside reading is required. The traditional kind of examination in this course is naturally of the "essay" type. Ten or a dozen questions are asked, each calling for the writing of a little essay of a page or two on some aspect of the course. Now I think that it is recognized that, although such an examination is very useful for certain purposes, it is quite ineffectual in finding out whether the students have actually done the required reading. It has also resulted in a marked increase in attention to academic duties on the part of students. In the general opinion of the better students it is a much more just and satisfactory examination than the traditional types. The only man who complains is the poor student who laments the loss of opportunity to discourse on what he happens to know rather than on what the instructor desires to find out.

I do not believe that the teacher lives who can obtain from a group of students accurate information as to whether they have read all of a list of required books by means of the essay type of examination.

On the other hand, the student does not live who can pass a well made true-false examination on a book if he has not read the book. Last year, shortly after the new type of examination was introduced in a large course in English, the librarian and the manager of the book store inquired of the professor what had happened to his course. Both reported a quite unprecedented drive on the part of the students to borrow, buy, or steal the required books.

It should be added that so far as we can see, this type of examination does not by any means entirely replace the old type. Questions of the essay type are retained in almost all of our examinations to test powers of synthesis, exposition, and knowledge of the sequence of events. In courses where this is the main interest as in courses in English composition, or in certain courses in History, Philosophy, or the Languages, the new type of examination may be of

little use. We do not yet know. But we are getting data and gradually reaching conclusions.

In Physics, for example, the new type of test has been supplemented by a few rather long and carefully chosen problems, which test the power to carry out a process of sustained and consecutive reasoning. It is interesting to observe, however, that the correlation between the results of the true-false part of the Physics examinations and the results of several problem tests is fully as high as that between the problem tests themselves, indicating that the true-false examination gives as accurate information regarding ability to solve problems as any single problem test.

It may be that a test in English can be devised involving short questions on vocabulary, grammar, and constructions that will test the ability to write better than the actual writing of a single composition. We are working on this problem, and hope in due time to be able to answer the question. We are certain that any one composition is a very inaccurate index of ability to write, and that a single composition read by only one reader is even a poorer index.

It should be emphasized that the preparation and management of this type of examination is a somewhat technical matter in several cases individual professors have attempted to organize the true-false examination without any expert advice. In every such instance that has come to my notice, the results have been unsatisfactory. But when the same professors have prepared and graded their examination under the advice of our Professor of Collegiate Educational Research, satisfactory results have followed.

Up to the present, I have mentioned the use of the new type of test first, as a part of the examination for admission to college, second as a content examination on courses pursued in college. Both of these experiments have been in use long enough so that we can estimate their value with some assurance.

We are at present engaged in the study of a third application of the new type of test which has not progressed

as far as the other two. I refer to the so-called placement examination.

Colleges that admit largely by certificate inevitably find a considerable amount of discrepancy in the fitness to take up the college work in specific departments, on the part of students from different schools, even though their records on paper are similar. For example, two years' work in French in one school means something quite different from two years in another. It is, therefore, important that even after the student has shown capacity for college work, and an acceptable certificate, some means should be devised for placing him in each of his college courses at the exact point which his preparation justifies. Even those institutions which admit entirely by examination find that the problem of placement is by no means accurately solved by the entrance examinations. If, however, a college is employing a method which admits students who are always successful in the work which they undertake, and always fit exactly in the college course which they enter, then the problem of placement which I am about to mention is not a live one for that college. But even for such an institution it might be worth while to study the question and find out whether the same happy result could be reached by a simpler means.

The needs of the situation can best be illustrated by the subject of English composition. Competence in the use of the English language implies acquaintance with a reasonably large vocabulary of words, ability to spell these words correctly, a knowledge of their proper construction in phrases and sentences, and facility in organizing them in a piece of sustained composition, either narrative, exposition, description, or argument. The easiest and the worst way to treat the question of spelling, for example, is to fail the student who misspells a certain number of words, in his entire examination. This method, which has been in common use in many colleges, has encouraged the humiliating practice on the part of many an honorable but discerning student of taking an account of stock of the words that he knows he

can spell even when under an emotional strain and of confining his literary efforts to that restricted vocabulary. A system that results in such a practice certainly merits attention.

It is proposed to meet this condition by asking each student who is admitted to college to take a placement examination, or set of examinations in English, which will follow the lines of cleavage indicated above. By means of a spelling test, a vocabulary test, a construction test, and a composition test it is anticipated that any weakness of the student will be discovered and isolated. In case he cannot spell but is competent in the other aspects of composition he will be required to take without credit a course in spelling in order to strengthen his weak spot. A similar procedure will be followed in the case of failure in any one of the other aspects of the use of the language. This plan seems more intelligent than the rejection of the student without either giving him a diagnosis of his trouble or affording any means for overcoming it which is suited to his infirmity.

It should be noted that these examinations are given only to students who have been admitted to college. It is, therefore, an attempt to analyse in a very searching manner the educational status and needs of the Freshmen.

A careful study of the results of this examination will be made in the attempt to discover whether any particular type of failure possesses peculiar significance. If, for example, it should turn out that a meager vocabulary of words inaccurately understood uniformly accompanies a low mental test, poor work in College English and accomplishment of a low order all along the line, a result of great importance will have been attained.

These placement examinations were given experimentally in September, 1923, in French, German, English, and Mathematics. We shall study the relation of the results obtained to the college accomplishment of the students, with the expectation of making similar examinations, to be given next

September, the basis for placement in sections of students entering college at that time.

In presenting an account of these studies it is important to emphasize their experimental character. Our experience at Columbia has been confined to the Thorndike Test in the work of admission. Many institutions have used other tests with varying success. For example, the short Army Alpha Test is often used with college students. So far as my information extends, these shorter tests which are prepared for a different purpose are of very little use in collegiate work. At any rate, it is most dangerous to adopt a new and somewhat novel method like the new type of examination without the most open minded and critical study of the results. This we are attempting to accomplish in Columbia College, in the hope that the outcome will make it possible to carry forward the difficult and complex enterprise of college education with more assurance and greater intelligence.

H. E. HAWKES.

International Travel and Study— An Official College Extension¹

COOPERATION among the colleges of the world to establish an official course of travel and study in foreign countries would simply extend to a logical development an already well-recognized principle of broad education.

Our country would certainly profit much by this opportunity. The very nature of our geographical location between the oceans explains in a measure the American's somewhat insular viewpoint toward world affairs.

Europeans, in view of the proximity of neighbors speaking other tongues and having conflicting interests, have been compelled to look across national boundary lines with minds more alert than ours in this respect. The British, on account of their wide stretch of colonial possessions, have a special impetus to study world conditions and come nearer than any other people to taking an international attitude toward important affairs of the world.

As science has, in recent years, narrowed the oceans and the continents and brought nations within speaking distance of one another, it behooves Americans to consider well the question whether, our former insular isolation having changed, it is not time that we develop international information and acquaintance as a foundation for greater international cooperation and good-will.

The slogan, "America First," should not be interpreted as meaning America only.

The recent World War should have opened our eyes to the fact that, irrespective of the wishes of many, isolation

¹ Address delivered before the Association of Urban Universities, Buffalo, N. Y., November 15, 1923.

is no longer possible even for "mind-your-own-business" Americans. The "ostrich" policy can no longer prevail. This is not a matter of theorizing; a hard, practical problem is before the people of the United States.

While the ideal of world peace should never be forsaken, we must not be blind to the fact that generations will certainly come and go before this ideal can be fully realized. A World Court of Justice may prevent many conflicts and settle many quarrels; but as long as nations look upon one another as aliens and strangers, the misunderstandings which are sure to arise will naturally lead to war after war.

The ultimate hope for real world peace lies in international education; not only local education of the people of each country, but broad, world-viewing education which enlightens the people of each nation (so far as possible without prejudice) about the affairs of all others. Increased travel from country to country would be a powerful agent working in this direction; first-hand information on the spot vivifies and complements book learning.

The colleges of the world may well take an active and united interest in this development. It is their aim to help build the highest type of citizenship; the type which is narrowed by false perspective and obsessed with pride that is only provincial should be relegated to the scrapheap. Broad citizenship aiming to elevate one's country, not by the injury of other nations but by policies requiring the highest world-wide enlightenment, is the college ideal.

Students whose minds are alert, inquiring and impressionable should be given the opportunity, through the encouragement of their Alma Mater, to stretch their observation and experience beyond national boundaries.

In a relatively small way the advantages of travel abroad have long been recognized; groups of students have been coming and going; privately organized travel bureaus are multiplying; several colleges have adopted official courses in other countries; but to secure the desired, far-reaching result, the *colleges of the world should formally cooperate*

to develop the idea of international travel, including recognized courses of study, and bring their united experience to bear on the great work; foreign travel and study should become, not as at present, a sporadic effort, but an official college function, a stated college extension. It is necessary that the best minds of all the colleges and universities concentrate on this great cause. Outside of the advantages to the work, the direct benefits to the colleges themselves would be many: This new opportunity for continuous touch with the students during the vacation periods (ending the present three months' breach in contact) would bring great advantage to the college faculties; many of the professors would thus incidentally secure the otherwise unattainable opportunity to travel abroad in their own and their students' interests; furthermore, both students and professors would bring back to their colleges much new information and fresh spirit.

Nearly all the educational leaders with whom I have discussed this great plan are heartily in its favor. The time for action is *now*.

Of course the problem of standardizing and developing courses of study in such a way as to permit of the greatest opportunity for interchange of credits, is one that will require deep thought and sustained energy and patience; the cause is worthy of such sacrifice. The financial side must be handled by a strong committee of practical men inspired with the great possibilities of this movement.

Steamship companies and others have advised me that many economies will be effected through dealing with large numbers of travelers; still, even with reduced expenses, many deserving students would not be able to undertake the trip and large sums will be required to establish scholarships to provide the opportunity.

I have received the assurance of a number of broad-minded bankers that the enterprise will promptly appeal to those having large funds for philanthropic purposes.

Also I have taken initial steps to secure the cooperation

of the League of Nations in this new peace movement.

With all these favorable interests, the colleges should succeed in this cooperative effort and they will thus become the inspiration of one of the most powerful agencies for the finest type of citizenship and the development of a real lasting peace among nations.

MARCUS M. MARKS.

Undergraduate Foreign Study for Credit Toward the American Baccalaureate Degree¹

THE UNIVERSITY of Delaware has for the past three years been working on a plan for undergraduate foreign study. Briefly, our idea is to allow students, qualified by character and training to do so, to take one year of the undergraduate course abroad and receive credit for this work, if satisfactorily completed, toward the baccalaureate degree. We think that we have anticipated and in some measure met all, or nearly all, of the difficulties which present themselves in such a plan. We now have a party of eight college juniors in France for the first year's experiment. They have been there since the first of July, and the indications are that they will have a satisfactory and profitable year's work in the regular session which began the first of November. Their summer's work will have given them necessary preparation and practice in the ready use and understanding of the language.

But before going into further detail in regard to the actual carrying out of the plan for this particular party it may be well to give some account of the genesis and purpose of the undertaking in order to make clear its relation to other colleges and the reason for bringing it before this Association at this time.

It can hardly be denied that one of the outstanding results of the Great War has been that the United States has become a world power of almost unlimited influence, and, whether we acknowledge it or not, of corresponding responsibilities. An enormous expansion of our foreign commerce

¹ Presented to the Association of State Universities, Chicago, November 13, 1923.

seems inevitable when necessary economic readjustments throughout the world have been made and our vast surplus of gold can be released for productive enterprises in other lands; and we shall then as a nation need many trained men and women to meet the demands of that expanding commerce and the world relationships it will bring; men and women who have had some training designed to fit them for the tasks presented, who know something of other countries than their own.

The need even now of men for the field of foreign commerce, export and import trade, was strikingly illustrated by our Secretary of Commerce, Mr. Hoover, who, in discussing with me the first rough draft of our plan, stated that he knew of no greater handicap and no greater need of the United States than its immediate and urgent need of many thousands of young men with training that would make them available for positions with firms engaged in foreign commerce and other overseas enterprises.

This opinion was later echoed by Mr. Wilbur Carr, Director of our Consular Service, in regard to our nation's governmental relation with foreign countries.

Mr. Jas. A. Farrell, president of the United States Steel Corporation, and Mr. Julius Barnes, president of the United States Chamber of Commerce, discussing the same subject, emphasized the fact that America cannot hope to attain its proper place in world commerce through superior organization or even through superior methods and enterprise, unless the men to carry on the work are forthcoming. And the same thought has been repeated by many other prominent business men in all parts of the country. We shall always be at a disadvantage in our foreign relations of every kind, they say, until there is a much larger number of Americans who know the language and in some measure the customs and methods of the peoples with whom we have to deal.

And in our own field of education there is probably no difference of opinion that the teaching of modern languages

in this country is far from satisfactory; that all too few of those teaching modern languages in our high schools, and even in many of our colleges, have that thorough knowledge and mastery of their subject which can be gained only by a considerable period of residence in the country in which the language is spoken.

Are these not problems in which the colleges of the country have a special interest? Cannot our colleges contribute something more than they are now contributing to meet these national needs? We believe they can, and the undertaking herein described is an effort to make a beginning in that direction. We believe that a plan for a large increase in opportunities for foreign study can be worked out by the colleges that will prove of great benefit to the student, the college, and to American education, as well as to those larger purposes that underlie it.

At present this country has *no* plan looking to a wide extension of familiarity with foreign language, trade, customs, and ideas. There are, indeed, organizations that are doing splendid work in promoting international intercourse and goodwill, arranging exchange scholarships and professorships, and giving help and guidance to individual students coming to this country or going to foreign lands. Except for them any plan for foreign study would be less feasible. Foremost among these is the Institute of International Education, the work of which is well known to all of you; and the American University Union, which is giving invaluable assistance to all American students in London and Paris through its offices in those cities, both of which will be, as they already have been in many ways, most helpful to the plan herein discussed or to any other having a similar purpose. Then there are still others which offer scholarships and fellowships to post-graduate students who wish to study abroad, e.g., the A.F.S. memorial fellowships, with the establishment and provisions of which you are well acquainted. But none of these is organized for the purpose we have in view.

Scholarships and fellowships are limited by the amount available for them. The recipients are usually *graduates* who desire to go abroad for research or post-graduate training of some sort.

This form of foreign study has, of course, a high value for the individuals enjoying it and also for us as a nation, but the number it can reach, like the splendidly conceived Rhodes Scholarships endowment, is necessarily very limited, and it does not reach the type of man adapted to the needs above referred to. It aims to reach those who will become specialists, and scientific investigators, while the purpose we have under consideration demands that we reach a different type and a much larger group in order to be effective. If one of our specific aims is to create, eventually, a great reservoir of college trained business men upon whom commerce and government may draw for work that involves a knowledge of the language and customs of other countries, we must reach those who are likely to go into business when they finish the college course.

We therefore conclude that any plan for foreign study that is to reach significant numbers, and is to be sure to include the future business man, must be made available for *undergraduates* and must *not* depend upon scholarships or fellowships. The four-year college course has become the accepted period of non-professional higher education for the average American. At the end of four years, if the boy is going into business, he wants to start at once, to "get at it right away," and neither he nor his parents would be willing for him to "lose a year" in post-graduate study abroad. But if the opportunity is offered to secure a year's training abroad, at not much greater expense than for the year at home, and still complete the college course in the regular four-year period, it seems reasonable to expect that many would be interested.

So our plan was based upon the needs, the preparation, and the maturity (or immaturity) of the undergraduate who

has had at least two years in college, and upon the assumption that he would pay his own expenses.

In working out the plan we recognized the many difficulties that present themselves in attempting to combine our educational system with others differing so radically from it in many ways. But those of us who had studied in foreign universities believed that the difficulties would not prove insuperable. So we sent a member of our faculty to France (the country in which we wanted to make our beginning) to spend a year there studying conditions bearing upon the project, conferring with the educational authorities, and investigating the many points about which we desired more complete information.

He found less difficulty in France, as was to be expected, than he would have encountered in all probability in other countries, for the educational work done for our army after the armistice had, of course, prepared the way to a certain degree by familiarizing French educators somewhat with our system. He found the French governmental and educational authorities and the French people generally very willing to cooperate in every possible way. Professors in universities and special schools are willing to give examinations at the end of each semester covering the ground of their lectures and the recommended reading and study, and to report whether or not the examination shows that the student has gained a satisfactory knowledge of the subject.

All items of expense were fully investigated and the total cost for a year's residence was found to be about \$1000; not much more than the average cost for 9 months in an American college.

A large number of courses were examined by personally attending lectures, and by conference with the lecturers. Many were thought to be fairly well adapted to the capacity of our junior or senior college students. These courses are chiefly in the fields of History, Economics, Politics, Philosophy, Commerce, International Law, and the French

and English languages and literatures and are offered in the following:

Faculté des Lettres de l'Université de Paris.

Cours de Civilisation Française (attached to the Faculté des Lettres).

Institut des Hautes Etudes Internationales.

Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques.

Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales.

Similar courses are offered with a somewhat narrower range of choice at the various universities in other parts of France: Grenoble, Nancy, Dijon, Toulouse, Marseilles, etc.

A number of French societies offer to give assistance in finding suitable families in which to place American students. A large number of desirable French families are willing to take our students into their homes as members of their households. Assurance was given that our students could count upon receiving a warm welcome and every possible assistance from those with whom they would come in contact.

On the whole our faculty was of the opinion that arrangements had been effected with the French educational institutions which adapted them sufficiently to our students' needs and that other matters of detail had been satisfactorily provided for. They therefore decided to permit a party of undergraduates to spend a year in study in France and drew up the following statement of conditions prescribed in reference thereto:

1. Students will pay their own expenses. No effort will be made to secure scholarships.

2. The party is to be composed of undergraduate students who have completed the Sophomore year.

(The question whether it would not be better, because of greater maturity and longer language training, to send those who had completed the Junior year, was raised. It was decided that for the present at least it would be best to send them for the Junior year so that upon their return the faculty might have a year in which to observe the results of the year of study abroad).

3. The group of students will be under the supervision throughout the year abroad of a member of the faculty.

4. Students must make application to a Committee of the Faculty to be admitted to the foreign study group. Only those will be accepted who have had at least four years in the study of the language of the country to be visited, two years in high school and two in college, or the equivalent.

No student will be accepted unless his character and record warrant the confident belief that he will make good use of his time abroad and reflect credit upon his college. Those who are accepted will be registered as members of their regular class in the home college, on leave of absence for foreign study, but subject to the regulations of the faculty as though in residence.

5. The party will leave the United States early enough in the summer to devote three months and a half in the foreign country to intensive tutoring work and practice in hearing and speaking the language before entering the work of the regular session, so that there may be no doubt as to ability to profit by the courses to be taken in so far as familiarity with the language is concerned.

6. The faculty member in charge of the party will represent the faculty and possess its authority over the students in the party. He will act as counselor and guide. He will see to it that all the students are *separately* lodged in desirable private families. He will make all necessary arrangements for the courses and the private tutoring to be taken during the 14-week period before the opening of the regular session. Similarly he will make arrangements for the formal registration in the courses of the regular session. He will pay board, tuition, and other such bills of members of his party out of funds provided in accordance with the provisions of the next paragraph. He will observe the work and conduct of the students and make reports on the same to the faculty every two months. He will make arrangements for the examinations to be held and be prepared to report to the faculty on the manner of holding such examinations and their nature and extent.

7. The amount necessary for board, tuition, and other fees in the foreign institutions must be deposited at the business office of the home college, which will remit at convenient intervals to the faculty member in charge, who will pay all bills for the items mentioned for all members of the group, taking receipts in triplicate; one for his own records, one for the student concerned, and one to be returned to the business office of the home college.

8. The number of students will be limited to 12 to each instructor.

Twelve students applied for the privilege of going. Eight were accepted. The party left during the first week in July.

The schedule planned for them, including optional trips, was as follows:

CALENDAR OF FOREIGN STUDY YEAR.

July 7—Sail from New York.

July 16—Arrival Le Havre and Paris.

July 17—In Paris.

July 18—Arrival at Nancy.

July 18 to August 31—Six weeks intensive French, at the University of Nancy.

August 12-15—Four-day trip, Metz, Verdun, Reims, Sedan, Liège, Bruxelles, Lille, devastated regions, industrial regions. (*Optional.*)

August 31—Arrival in Paris.

September 1 to October 31—Two months intensive French at the Alliance Française, Paris.

September 29-30—Two-day trip, Tours, Blois, and the chateau country. (*Optional.*)

November 1, 1923, to June 30, 1924:

Eight month university year in Paris.

(a). Alliance Française.

(b). Cours de Civilisation Française (at the Sorbonne)

(c). Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques.

(d). Institut des Hautes Etudes Internationales.

December 26-31—Six-day trip, Bordeaux, Biarritz, Toulouse, Limoges. (*Optional.*)

April 1-12—Twelve-day trip, Dijon, LeCreusot, Lyon, Nîmes, Marseille, Nice, Grenoble, Genève. (*Optional.*)

November 1-June 30—As circumstances permit, visits to the Louvre, Notre-Dame, Sainte Chapelle, Versailles, Rambouillet, Fontainebleau, Malmaison, Usines Citroën, Banque de France, Bibliothèque Nationale, etc. etc.

As the student may desire, performances of the Opéra, Opéra-Comique, Comédie-Française, Odén, etc.

July 1, 1924—Return to U.S.A.

I visited the group several weeks after they reached France. I found them all comfortably located, each in a different private family in Nancy, attending regular courses of the Summer Session of the University of Nancy especially arranged for foreigners; attending lectures and quizzes four hours a day ~~besides an hour's special tutoring in the~~

use of the language. All were reported by their instructors as doing very satisfactory work. My visit assured me that we would make no mistake as a faculty in taking account, for credit, of the three and a half months work they would do before beginning the regular session.

Of course the most difficult factor in the whole situation has been to compare the value in *credit hours* of the courses to be taken in the French schools with our own. In this our faculty was obliged to accept the estimate made by the member of the faculty who had personally investigated them, supplemented by their own examination of the description of the courses in the printed announcements. My visit to Nancy, where the work being done was only preliminary to the regular session, persuaded me that we had a wide margin of safety and assurance that the value of the work of the year would not fall *below* our requirements at home for a session.

It is unquestionably true that it is quite impossible to find courses that will correspond very closely to ours, and a faculty that desires anything like exact equivalence with the courses their students would take at home cannot be satisfied and would waste its time considering the matter. And it is not yet established that examinations by the foreign instructor will prove a satisfactory method of testing what the student has accomplished. It may prove better in the light of experience with that method to adopt something like the comprehensive English university method and set the examinations ourselves covering the general field of lecture and reading pursued in each subject and thus satisfy ourselves that real work has been done and substantial results obtained; or to have the examination papers sent to us for determination of credit.

Our faculty plans to supplement the examinations in France with oral and written examinations at home of a kind to ascertain at least in a general way the extent and thoroughness of the work done. A more searching and detailed examination will be given in French, for in this sub-

ject the student will be granted $7\frac{1}{2}$ credit hours, one-half of the normal session's work, if the examination is satisfactorily passed.

Broadly speaking, we believe that a year of study in subjects of college grade in a foreign country added to the acquisition of the language and to the acquaintance gained of the ideas, customs, and point of view of another people, of its art, architecture, music, and drama, might well be counted the equivalent in educational value of a session in the home college, whatever the method of examination, but we want to make sure by adequate checks that real work on definitely defined subjects has been done by the student and be able to give our own assurance to the "doubter" that such is the case.

These problems can, of course, be fully explored only by experience, but seem to offer fair hopes of a satisfactory solution.

Our experiment, as far as it has gone, seems to us to have proven entirely successful, and we confidently expect a successful final outcome. Late reports on our students indicate excellent work both in the Summer Session of the University of Nancy and later in the Alliance Française at Paris.

We plan to issue a bulletin within the next two months containing a full account of the foreign study experiment, giving in detail the items of expense for travel, board, tuition, etc., and a description of a considerable number of the courses that are available for the average American college Junior. Any person interested in the plan can secure a copy of this bulletin upon request.

Our faculty member in Paris, Prof. Raymond W. Kirkbride, will also be glad to be of assistance to colleges desiring information not contained in the bulletin. His address is 6 Rue Leneveux, Paris, XIV.

In this short sketch I cannot go into any further detail concerning the many aspects of the subject. It is not possible to do more than refer in the briefest way to the advan-

tages of the plan in its effect upon the department of modern languages and related departments in the institution sending out a group. We should naturally look for a certain degree of stimulation for all the teachers in the modern language department, and for unquestioned advantage to the instructor spending a year in study in the foreign country whose language he teaches, but the degree of stimulation of interest among all the *students* in the department could hardly have been anticipated, and in our case was an unexpected by-product. Naturally the possibility of joining the foreign study group gave a concrete purpose and objective for their language study to all who entertained any thought of going with the party, but the extension of this vitalizing influence to those who had no idea of going was an agreeable surprise. And this influence is said to have been felt even beyond the limits of the department especially concerned: in the other modern languages, in history in its bearing upon the country to be visited, in political or international questions relating to it, and in other less direct ways.

In closing I should mention that the plan we are suggesting does not anticipate that this experiment shall be limited to France, but looks forward to seeing it within a few years extended to some Spanish-speaking country, Spain, Cuba, or the Argentine, and later, perhaps, to still other lands, by the colleges adopting it.

Our chief concern just now and our reason for bringing the matter before this and other associations is that other colleges shall *join* us in the undertaking and, if our present tentative program does not recommend itself, shall help us to develop a better one. Convinced as we are of the benefit of this form of foreign study to our own students and our own college, we should yet feel that the results are hardly worth the time and effort we have and will put into it unless other colleges also believe the purpose to be worth while and the method practicable, or at least capable of being made practicable.

Alone, our undertaking would be of small value outside our own college community; with colleges generally participating in it or in some better plan it might well become the means of establishing a much broader contact for America with other countries than now exists and exert a real influence upon the attainment of that better international understanding which we all so earnestly desire but for the realization of which so little fruitful effort is being made.

WALTER HULLIHEN.

The Work of the Educational Finance Inquiry¹

THE EDUCATIONAL Finance Inquiry was the concrete result of the organized conviction of numerous educational and civic leaders of the country. This conviction itself was the reaction of forward-looking minds to the problem which, for a generation, increasingly dominated and delimited education. The climax in the affairs of all civilization, produced by the Great War, gave new force and clearer form to the conviction that our entire educational system must be based upon a thoroughly understood and carefully calculated foundation of social economy. A distinctly American educational policy had been already determined and apparently accepted. The means and the methods for the continuous and successful operation of that policy are as yet in the "trial and error" stage.

In August, 1921, a special committee, as recommended by the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, met in New York to consider the problem of the better, more secure and more economical financing of public education. Following a week of discussion, of analysis, of the selection of varying judgments, and of the consolidation of wide experiences, the committee proposed "that an Educational Finance Inquiry be organized for the purpose of making, in selected, typical communities and states, an intensive study of present expenditures for the several grades and institutions of public education, and the relationships of such expenditures, to the expenditures for other public purposes and to economic resources, as a basis for discovering the extent to which the free educational

¹Address to the National Association of State Universities, Chicago, November 13, 1923.

system of the country can be maintained and developed by the more complete and economical utilization of both present and potential sources of public revenue—local, state and national." This proposal for a comprehensive study of American educational finance was submitted to certain of the great educational foundations. In response, the Commonwealth Fund, the General Education Board, the Carnegie Corporation, and the Milbank Memorial Fund each contributed toward a fund which, it was estimated, would enable the projected work to be carried out during the succeeding two years. The American Council on Education was selected as a trustee for this cooperative fund.

The personnel of the commission to conduct the inquiry was as follows:

E. C. Brooks, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina.

Samuel P. Capen, Chancellor, University of Buffalo, Director of American Council on Education and member *ex officio* until December 1, 1922.

Ellwood P. Cubberly, Dean, School of Education, Stanford University, California.

Edward C. Elliott, President, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

Thomas E. Finegan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Robert Murray Haig, Professor, School of Business, Columbia University, New York City.

Charles R. Mann, Director, American Council on Education, Washington, District of Columbia, and member *ex officio* since December 1, 1922.

Victor Morawetz, Attorney at Law, New York City.

Henry C. Morrison, Professor of Education and Superintendent of Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration and Director of Division of Field Studies, Institute of Educational Research Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, *Chairman* of the Commission.

Herbert S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, New York.

In rooms generously provided by the Teachers' College of Columbia University, the commission began its work

late in the autumn of 1921 under the active personal supervision of the chairman of the commission, Dr. George D. Strayer. The commission itself has met every few months for the critical examination of plans and for reviewing the progress of the work.

The program of the commission contemplated first of all an intensive study of educational finances of a single state. It was believed that this procedure would limit the work of the inquiry to an area from which tangible results could be expected within a reasonable time and within the limit of the available funds. The commission considered that such an intensive study might lay the basis for a technique applicable to other states and communities. For reasons which may not be elaborated here, the State of New York was selected for this first detailed study.

The work of the commission will shortly be brought to a close by the publication of a more or less complete report dealing with the financial problem of education not only in New York, but also in certain other states.

Six sections of the report are now in press. The first section, "The Financing of Education in the State of New York," is a complete analysis of the current educational costs and educational revenues in that state, the like of which has not hitherto been attempted. Accompanying this comprehensive study are two supplementary studies, one containing a presentation of elementary school costs and another dealing with the cost of secondary education in the State of New York.

Following the issuance of the three foregoing studies of New York, there will be published three somewhat more general sections of the report:

- (a) A complete Bibliography on Educational Finance.
- (b) The Fiscal Administration of City School Systems.
- (c) The Financial Statistics of Public Education in the United States from 1910 to 1920.

It is a safe forecast that the last-mentioned publication will prove to be especially serviceable to the educational in-

terests of the entire country. For the first time a critical and reliable analysis has been made of the cost of education as compared with the total cost of government functions. Furthermore, the distributions of the cost of education for the entire country among elementary and secondary schools, higher education, and administration have been calculated. An illuminating analysis of the relationship of capital outlays, interest and current expenses has been made. Dr. Mabel Newcomer, who has prepared this section of the report, has made a significant study of the sources of school revenue and of the total existing educational debt of the country. Important initial studies have been made for each state of the relationships of public expenditures to property resources and to per capita income.

In addition to these results, the inquiry has made detailed studies of the financing of public education in California, in Iowa and in Illinois. Each of these studies has produced a body of educational and economic facts which cannot but be of far-reaching influence upon the educational policies of these states.

The distinct goal of the Educational Finance Inquiry has been to assemble, to array, and to articulate the essential financial facts pertaining to certain typical state school systems, as at present organized and conducted; and to relate these facts, as far as possible, to the presumptions of the accepted theory and the established programs of the public school. In other words to give an accurate financial description of education, not only in terms of schools as they are, but also in relation to the economic resources. There has been no attempt to evaluate education as education, or to speculate about schools as our theories and our ideals would have them. There has been, however, a seriously scientific effort to discover those key facts which, *of themselves*, might convey to the citizenship and to the educational leaders of the states concerned, a clear message indicating how far the material obligation for the maintenance of external equality of educational opportunity have been met;

and perchance how far, only these obligations can be met under existing political and revenue systems. The inquiry has had to do directly with public education *dollars*. Indirectly, it could not avoid having to do with public education *duty*.

Properly the major attention of the inquiry has been given to questions centering in the present-day cost of public elementary and secondary schools. The original working plan of the inquiry included a study of the financing of higher education, especially of the state colleges and universities of the country. The members of this association will recall that the Educational Finance Inquiry project was presented at the New Orleans meeting in 1921 and a vote of interest and cooperation granted. A similar vote was made by the executive body of the Association of Land Grant Colleges.

Through the higher education section of the United States Bureau of Education, a preliminary and unsuccessful effort was made to collect financial data which might serve as a basis for the presentation of the fiscal problem of American higher education. In theory, our higher education reaches the zenith of its power when it is able to derive a truthful and useful interpretation of the concrete facts of life. In their own financial affairs this theory has not been recognized by our higher institutions. Apparently, every institution is interested in facts pertaining to higher education finance providing these facts pertain to some other institution. I am not saying that this is not as it should be. I am merely recording the experience of the inquiry and the failure to secure the active cooperation of a considerable group of state institutions for the intensive study of the fiscal problem. While there is unbounded zeal for securing unlimited support for science, there is little or no active interest in scientific support.

One of the significant addresses given during the days of my own membership in this association was that of President Burton at the Washington meeting of 1920, dealing

with "A National Survey of State Universities." The central argument of this forceful address was based upon the thesis of the "irresistible power of facts." In this case it must be admitted that the facts of finance in our publicly supported colleges and universities have very successfully resisted the inquiry.

When it became evident that the state institutions were long on the theory of facts and very short on the delivery of the same (not always because there was refusal, but usually because of the absence of the facts themselves within the institution) the effort of the inquiry, in so far as it was to be related to higher education, was turned to a particular specific issue which could be treated within a narrow area from which complete support could be secured. For the particular enterprise, which I shall now briefly describe, I must assume entire personal responsibility in so far as the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission itself is concerned.

Experience as a university executive in several states long ago convinced me that the citizenship of the state, especially when recording its decisions through legislative appropriations, largely concerns itself with two groups of facts. The first of these has to do with the total amount appropriated to an institution. Little or no distinctions are drawn as to the ultimate purposes for which these funds might be intended; whether for resident teaching, for scientific investigation, for extra-mural operations or for those many and varied ministerial or police activities which have come to be administered by our state institutions. An *appropriation* for the *university* was an *appropriation* for the *university*. The university, in the restricted thinking of the average citizen, was composed more or less exclusively of the number of students enrolled in the university. I have not yet worked in a state wherein the issue of university appropriations was not seriously complicated, during my legislative session, by inaccurate and unreliable calculations of annual per student costs made by persons unskilled in the elementary processes of either logic or arithmetic. It seems to me idle for

us to longer maintain that the per student cost item should be disregarded in our university financial policies. If we do not make these calculations, someone less able than the university executive should be, and less responsible than this same executive is compelled to be, will proceed to fabricate, from annual reports and other documents filled with esoteric, statistical information, a result unfair to the public or to the institution.

Therefore the great desirability of perfecting reliable technique for the calculation of students costs was urged before the commission. At the time this argument was presented I had executive responsibility for a group of four state higher institutions in a northwestern state. The original plan contemplated that the higher institutions of the state of Montana, Washington, Oregon and Idaho would cooperate in a project of calculating the cost of education in terms of the individual student and of specific curricula.

It is only fair, perhaps, to state that this plan was determined upon primarily because of the very significant pioneering in higher educational finance by the Board of Higher Curricula of the State of Washington. Through the active cooperation of President Suzzallo of the University of Washington, the service of Mr. E. B. Stevens, the executive secretary of that institution and for several years the secretary of the State Board of Higher Curricula, were requisitioned by the Educational Finance Inquiry. This in the early spring of 1922.

Owing to my own change of base from Montana to Indiana, it became necessary to modify the original plan somewhat.

Here I would digress for a moment to present a striking illustration of the prime importance of the much discussed and much abused student cost.

In the session of the Indiana Legislature of 1921, the question of the increase in funds for the state higher institution became a center of controversy and conflict. The resulting discussion involved not only Indiana University

and Purdue University and the State Normal School but also the entire question of the support of the public school system. The result was the creation of an Educational Survey Commission which was charged with the responsibility of making a comprehensive investigation of the entire school system of the state. Three sections of the Legislative Resolution are, I think significant:

5. To investigate the present and future needs of Purdue University, Indiana University and the State Normal Schools in order that they may meet the necessary educational requirements of the state.

6. To investigate and determine the *cost per student* of those attending schools in the State, including primary, secondary and advanced institutions of learning, and *to recommend, if necessary, such methods and procedure as will eliminate extravagance and needless expenditure of money.* (Italics mine. E. C. E.)

7. To prepare and submit to the next general assembly a statement showing in detail the various sources of revenue of Indiana University, Purdue University and the Indiana State Normal School, together with a detailed statement of the expenditure of such funds.

It is not pertinent for me discuss the work and results of the Indiana Educational Survey Commission. Nevertheless, in so far as the higher institutions of learning were concerned, the results of the survey are not without interest. It will be recalled that the actual investigation and field work of the survey were carried on by the several specialists representing the General Education Board. The study of the finances of the higher institutions of learning was made by Mr. H. J. Thorkelson, the widely known, former business manager of the University of Wisconsin and at the time in charge of the university and financial studies being conducted by the General Education Board. New as I was to the situation, I was able to have a certain disinterested interest. The charges of extravagance, excessive costs, and mismanagement of funds on the part of the state higher institutions, however, were not kept from my ears. These charges persisted as the legislature convened in January,

1923. Shortly thereafter, Mr. Thorkelson's report upon his financial and statistical studies of Indiana University, Purdue University and the Indiana State Normal School was published. No doubt this report has been in the hands of most of you. I am sure that I express a wholly dispassionate judgment when I say that the final statement of Mr. Thorkelson's report stilled at once those who had been severely critical of the institutions.

"Nevertheless," said Mr. Thorkelson finally, "this study gives no evidence of relatively extravagant expenditures at the two Indiana institutions (Purdue and Indiana). On the other hand it confirms the evidence of other studies of total expenditures and enrollment showing that the state is not only expending less relatively than neighboring states for higher education, but also less per student."

During my personal contact with the leaders of the citizenship of the state and with the leaders in the legislature, I can state without qualification that no influence has contributed to a keener appreciation of the unmet responsibilities of Indiana for her higher educational institutions than did the student-unit cost studies made by Mr. Thorkelson.

The contribution which the Educational Finance Inquiry hopes to make towards a better understanding of the always more pressing and far-reaching problems of the adequate support and economical cost of public higher education will appear shortly in the form of a monograph dealing with the unit costs of instruction for the year 1921-1922 in a group of nine institutions:

- University of Washington.
- State College of Washington.
- University of Oregon.
- Oregon Agricultural College.
- Purdue University.
- Oregon State Normal School.
- Washington State Normal School at Bellingham.
- Washington State Normal School at Cheney.
- Washington State Normal School at Ellensburg.

As the first necessary step for this study there was pre-

pared under the direction of Mr. Stevens a manual carefully setting forth the technique by which the essential and basic data were to be obtained. This technique provided a formula for determining in a uniform and more or less precise manner the number of students actually receiving instruction and the amount of each of the many and varied forms of instruction given to these students. I shall not here defend the necessity, the desirability or the general worth of such figures for the economical administration of higher instruction. Sufficient be it to say that experience has clearly shown that these data are secured in most institutions only after much special effort. In this respect it was evident that most of our institutions are of the mind of St. Augustine who, it is related, when asked about a doctrine of the church said: *"If you ask me I don't know, but if you don't ask me I know very well."*

Similarly it was necessary to set up a proper classification of expenditures which would enable an accurate display of costs properly allocated by purposes, by departments, and by specific curricula. Clear and accurate distinctions and distributions needed to be made between expenditures for instruction, for various cooperative services, for research, for the several overhead departments, including student welfare, for physical plant operation, for capital outlay, and supplementary, self-supporting business enterprises.

Without entering upon any complete presentation of the detailed application of the formulae and methods of the instructional and finance accounting, the published results of this study of the Educational Finance Inquiry will show the accurately calculated real, annual costs of instruction per student in each case of the several curricula provided in the institutions concerned.

The primary purpose of this, perhaps relatively minor project, as promoted by the Educational Finance Inquiry, has been to develop a simple and generally applicable method by which the comparative costs of higher education may be

obtained. Evidence of the need of such method accumulates as the necessity of interpreting state supported higher education to a critical citizenship presses itself upon those responsible for the present welfare and the future development of our institutions. There can be no doubt that reliable and comparable student unit cost indices not only furnish the means for applying a common sense efficiency to the all-important and far-reaching business of higher education and professional training, but these self-same indices give us, if we are courageously and skillfully to solve the material problem of our publicly supported schools, colleges and universities, the dependable arguments for inspiring confidence in the whole of a people who have yet to hear in their hearts the prophet's warning, "We must educate, we must educate, or we perish in our own prosperity."

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT.

The Personnel Division

AN OUTLINE of the purpose of the Division of College and University Personnel, as conceived by its creators, was published in the EDUCATIONAL RECORD shortly before the organization of the bureau in the fall of 1922. The Division is now well under way, having enlisted the cooperation of two hundred colleges and universities and secured a registration of ten thousand teachers. The remaining accredited higher institutions are being canvassed, and there should be twenty thousand names in the files by the first of May.

It has been found that widespread confusion exists as to the exact differences between the Division of College and University Personnel and the independent teachers agency. Three salient contrasts should be kept in mind if the division and the men and women whom it serves are to meet on common ground.

First, the Division is strictly noncommercial. The work is supported by appropriation from the funds of the Council. It has been felt that the imposition of fees or commissions would not only exclude many desirable registrants but would open the way to temptations and suspicions of self-interest on the part of the bureau and thus generally defeat its aims. Outside the college appointment offices there is no other comprehensive noncommercial transfer agency in the country.

Registration in the Division is inclusive. Not only are those admitted who are desirous of a change and of better opportunities for advancement, but also all other teachers who are well placed and contented in their work. Judged by the data already gathered, the completed census will be a fairly accurate and extremely interesting directory of the men and women who are responsible for the value and the

progress of higher education in America. As the members of faculties gain confidence in the organization, and cooperate in keeping the files up to date, the division can render a vital service, not only to the teacher, but to teaching.

The third essential difference between the Division and the teachers' agency is the manner in which names of candidates are selected and presented to officials seeking instructors. The procedure of the agency is familiar. Let us take a case, then, of application to the Division for candidates. Suppose a department of biology is in need of a bacteriologist. After careful study of the requirements as stated by the prospective employer, the first step is the consultation of the active applicant file. All registrants who have expressed definite desire for change, as well as those who have registered from outside of the profession for teaching work, are included in this file. We shall assume that there are three names here which fit the particular case. Transcripts are made of these records, with special notation regarding their active character. The general file of biologists, containing, let us say, eighteen hundred names, is then examined. Careful selection may result in the removal of twenty-five cards. These twenty-eight records are forwarded to the inquiring official without delay. No comment is made beyond remarks made by the registrant himself on the blank, and no confidential information is included.

The Division believes that a man's first recommendation is the successful tenure of his present position, and that direct application to the officials under whom the candidate is working is more vital than the customary "to-whom-it-may-concern" letter. It will be easily seen, moreover, that, with the limited resources available, it would be a physical impossibility to handle this impersonal data. Elaborate arrangements of confidential matter, theses, photographs and extensive publications are often submitted. This material may be examined in personal perusal of the files, but it is judged best not to use it in sending out lists.

The Division is glad, whenever possible, to obtain the

records of men not registered. And every feasible effort is made to assist in following up clues in cases of emergency vacancies.

As the work has advanced definite plans and policies have taken shape. It has been suggested that a directory be published, a Who's Who in American higher education. Whether to make the compilation and publication of such a volume the main object of the Division or to concentrate on transfer work and, perhaps, develop the directory later has been a moot question. The decision to stress the latter first has clarified the work by giving it a definite road to travel. It is hoped that the value of the service will so impress itself on the teachers, as time goes on, that sufficient material for the directory will be automatically created.

Plans are under way to register, soon after the mid-year, all the students who are taking graduate degrees in June. This list will be of obvious value to officials in search of assistants and instructors. An excellent suggestion, made recently by a college president, that the government departments be canvassed for men and women who may have entered the civil service during the war and have been unable to find teaching positions since, is being followed up. Plans are being formulated for a systematic search for men and women who are qualified and would like to teach, but have been forced by circumstance to take up other lines of work.

A vital part of the work will be the establishment of co-operative relations with the appointment offices of the colleges and universities and with the educational service bureaus of special schools and societies. In a recent number of the *Record*, Prof. Charles Judd said, "There is no other civilized nation under the sun so ill-equipped with central authorities in school matters as are we." As Dr. Capen has already pointed out, this is poignantly true of the facilities afforded college officials in America for finding teachers. The Division has already been assured of the cooperation of some of the largest college appointment offices and has received valuable assistance from the appointment director

of one of the national societies. It is hoped that the isolated parts of the teacher-appointment vehicle may thus be assembled into a national instrument to facilitate the exchange and advancement of good teaching material.

Some of the problems which have faced the Division are still in the process of solution and more are constantly being posed. How can the work be made effective during those seasons of the year when sending lists of men and women already engaged is practically futile—that is, for extra-seasonal vacancies, as in November and March? What can be done to make the service so adequate, so effectual, as to atone for the absence of the “personal touch” which is the vitalizing element of most personnel work? Or, perhaps, can the personal touch be introduced in some way, some day? Can money enough be provided to carry on a work which is national in scope and which must be done comprehensively, or not done at all? How can the records of upwards of twenty thousand men and women, a whole shifting, decentralized population, be kept strictly accurate and up to date? The examples of failures in similar ventures have been helpful in some instances. The constructive interest of college officials has solved many problems. Many will be put down only by the more difficult and slower process of trial and error.

Significant trends and tendencies, facts and figures, are showing themselves through the mass of blanks already received. These will undoubtedly grow to have considerable value as the census is completed. Material is here for salary surveys, for occupational trends, for records of supply and demand, for indexes to standards and for studies of capacity and opportunity which may be of great value. From the viewpoint of those doing the work not the least interesting phase is the individual reaction to registration. The blank appears to many so impersonal, so far away and, I could almost say, of such friendly content, that a confessional is often made of it. Not a little that is human and sincere can be gained from these asides. Possibly they are more of an

index to a man's worth than the record of his teaching experience or of the national societies to which he belongs. One man writes, "I would consider a change to any position that would offer a man-sized job. This one is still in short trousers." Another: "My ambition was to teach entomology. The scarcity of positions in this field has led me to regard this science now as an avocation. I would eagerly consider a position in my chosen field." Or: "I am best fitted to teach French, although I do not dislike journalism, as it makes me a human being of the American magazine type. But I do my best work in French."

The most numerous are those who plead for opportunities for research. It is difficult to say how the teaching would get done if everyone who prefers the laboratory, the observatory or the library obtained what he wanted. According to recently published reports of various societies and associations, there is undoubtedly some justice in the cry.

We have always with us the man who, by his own consent, should be a college president. He is modest, usually, writing in a small hand down in one corner, "I would accept the presidency of a good small college." And his brother, who is not modest but who booms, "I am considered by teachers, president and students as the best teacher on the campus."

There is one other. Around him the rest revolve. The ideal of the Division will gradually be realized as the movement of the mass is turned in his direction. He writes, "I do not desire to change. My associates are congenial and opportunities for advancement good. While I would probably accept any chance to materially better my work, I am quite happy where I am."

LYNDA M. SARGENT.

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Medical Education, 1909-1924¹

FIFTEEN years ago, under the kindly and patient chaperonage of Dr. Colwell, I began my pilgrimage to medical schools at New Orleans, where Dr. Colwell and I visited the Medical Department of Tulane University. For some three or four years following I devoted myself exclusively to the study and observation of medical education in this country and in the main countries of Western Europe. Then for a period of ten years my contact with medical schools was simply occasional, while Dr. Colwell in behalf of the Council on Medical Education of the American Medical Association kept up, not only his field contacts, but the unremittent hammering to which our American progress in medical education has been so largely due.

About two and one-half years ago I undertook to review once more the entire field, though unfortunately I have not been able to visit as many schools either in this country or abroad as I touched in my original journey, partly because I desired to include in my foreign studies some of the smaller countries of Western Europe—Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Denmark and Sweden—which I had not previously touched. On the invitation of the Chairman and Secretary of the Council, I am going to make a brief comparison of the conditions, as I found them in 1909-1912, with conditions as they exist in 1924.

No fundamental changes either in respect to equipment, method of instruction or aim of instruction have taken place on the continent of Europe during this period. The war has indeed made it extremely difficult for the smaller nations, which were not themselves involved in the war, to

¹Address before the Council on Medical Education of the American Medical Association, at Chicago, March 3, 1924.

maintain their hospitals and medical schools at the pre-war level of activity and efficiency, but, though painful economies are being practised, we are perhaps justified in saying that on a long view no permanent damage will have been done.

In Germany and in Austria—the countries which prior to the war easily led the world in the field of medical education and research—herculean efforts are being made to keep at work, despite economic conditions which have discouraged and to some extent disintegrated the university personnel. Relief from the outside and mutual self-help from the inside have accomplished something. Men with ideas continue to work with their heads, if not with their hands, and with an occasional frog, if not with the abundance of animals which they were previously in position to utilize. Distress, failure and revolution have provoked severe criticism. With unprecedented freedom of expression, politics and education have been subjected to searching analysis and criticism. The democratic leaders, influenced largely by American example, have in particular sought to bring the universities into closer touch with the masses. Medical education has not escaped. But the literature in question, outspoken and abundant as it is, does not directly attack what seemed to me the real weakness in German medical education prior to the war. If Germany finds itself once more in a fairly comfortable economic situation, I have little doubt that the universities will quickly recover their vigor. They will become once more productive seats of scientific investigation, and they will afford splendid opportunities for study and training to the abler student; but I see as yet no indication of the thorough-going change in teaching methods which would give a more practical character to medical instruction.

France has been quite stationary, except in so far as the acquisition of the University of Strasbourg gives the country for the first time a modern medical school plant. The medical faculty at Strasbourg is composed partly of

men trained in Germany, partly of men trained in France; and a group, containing representatives of both views, has recently visited England and the United States. The dean of the faculty is a vigorous personality, well aware of the defects of the traditional French type of training, swamped, as it is, by premature and excessive emphasis on the clinic. This combination of circumstances makes Strasbourg a natural experiment station which might endeavor to combine the practical features of French clinical training with the laboratory features and investigative activities characteristic of the German university organization. Whether the Strasbourg faculty, however, will be a real center for educational experimentation in France or whether it will gradually fall into the traditional groove remains to be seen.

In Great Britain, physiology (including pharmacology and bio-chemistry) still maintains its high place, whether viewed from the standpoint of teaching or research. The other medical sciences, long inferior in vigor, now, however, show signs of vitality. A modern institution of anatomy, likely to serve as a stimulating model, has been created at University College, London, under the direction of Prof. Elliott Smith, and plans are being discussed for the development of a broadly conceived school of pathology at Cambridge. Other medical sciences than physiology will thus come to be cultivated in a scientific, rather than a merely instrumental or medical spirit.

Two other innovations must be recorded—both calculated in the long run to modify the excessively practical character of medical education in Great Britain. The English Government is supporting, at several of the London schools, clinical units, the heads of which at University College, St. Bartholomew's and St. Thomas' are recognized as professors of medicine and surgery in the University of London. For the first time professional full-time teachers of medicine and surgery have thus been established in certain of the London hospital schools. A similar departure is about to be inau-

gured at Edinburgh. The academic character of these men is strongly emphasized, for they are expected to be not only teachers but productive medical scientists. To be sure, their budgets are small and their staffs altogether too limited. If, however, increasing funds can be found, it may be that out of this simple beginning some such development on the side of clinical teaching will take place in Great Britain as has taken place in the United States.

The second hopeful change runs into the first. The English Government has created a Medical Research Council, to which it makes an appropriation of \$125,000 a year. The Medical Research Council is fine-combing Great Britain for the purpose of discovering young men of talent to whom fellowships may be awarded, in order that they may spend one, two or three years in medical investigation and research. The Council has also created at Hampstead a small but active research institute. Once more, for the first time in Great Britain, the needs of medical education and research have been frankly recognized, and the government has made provision for the development of young men who, as they become teachers in medical schools, will undoubtedly modify the prevailing too practical and short-sighted point of view.

To recapitulate: Except for the damage done by the war, Western Europe continues to work along the same lines that existed prior to the war. Equipment is good, facilities abundant, and conditions uniform within each of the countries. There is no fundamental or thorough-going distinction to be made between the various institutions of any given country. The same standards of admission prevail, the student body is of the same high quality, and the faculties are relatively complete. In England alone, while general conditions remain what they were, have two interesting developments taken place, namely, the establishment of the full-time medical and surgical units and the creation of the Medical Research Council for the purpose of subsidizing research.

During this same period America has accomplished what at first sight looks like a transformation. Relatively viewed,

progress in this country has been enormously greater than anywhere else. It affects every item that goes to make up a medical school. There were one hundred and fifty-odd schools, so called, in this country fifteen years ago. That number has been practically cut in half. The weak schools in all sections of the country, particularly in the south and west where they are most abundant, have been almost wholly eliminated. Some kind of order has been introduced in the matter of matriculation requirements, though the order is in many respects more apparent than real. Everywhere equipment and facilities have been improved. The laboratory subjects are almost universally taught by full-time and specially trained teachers, though the teachers are in most schools still hampered by inadequacy of support, i. e., inadequacy of staff and equipment. On the clinical side, the situation is less satisfactory. The busy practising physician is still in most schools the teacher of the clinical subjects; clinical instruction continues to be largely given in hospitals neither organized, equipped nor primarily meant for educational use. Nevertheless, the level has generally risen; in the better schools, organization and equipment have been distinctly improved; in the best, a genuinely professional clinical teaching staff of high quality, working amid fairly ideal conditions, has been assembled. Finally, surviving schools have almost without exception found larger sums for their conduct than could have been dreamed of a decade ago. A small group of schools enforce such standards of admission and have procured such equipment and resources that they deserve to be ranked among the strongest institutions to be found anywhere.

For this relatively quicker and greater progress there are several explanations. In the first place, we had further to go; the differences between what was good and what was bad were in America ten years ago far more marked than was the case in any other country in the western world. Progress—dramatic progress—was therefore possible in America on easier terms than anywhere else. Things were

so excellent in Germany, Denmark and Switzerland that very great progress was not to be expected and could not take place within so brief a term. In England and France, on the other hand, though conditions in the different schools in either country were fairly uniform, they were unsatisfactory. Great general progress would have been possible, but it was not made. America, worse off than any of them, bestirred itself actively. This activity is attributable to two factors, leadership and funds. The claim of leadership belongs to the Council of Medical Education of the American Medical Association, to a few leading schools, and to a few individuals. In response to the demand created by these leaders, funds have been procured by universities through taxation and from philanthropic individuals and organizations. The credit, however, belongs not to the money but to the leaders and primarily to the leaders in the profession and the schools. No other country has during this period produced anything like the systematic and energetic campaign carried on in recent years by those responsible for medical education in the United States.

I hope now that I have not only satisfied our national pride but that I have been absolutely fair. Let me repeat that no nation in the world has within the last ten or twelve years made such progress in the organization, improvement and financing of medical education as the United States. On the other hand, let us not deceive ourselves. Let us objectively face the situation, not merely from the standpoint of relative progress during a decade or more, but on the basis of an inventory of what we actually possess today, and let us compare it point by point with what can be found elsewhere.

I have said that in different European countries the medical schools, while varying somewhat in wealth and facilities, are in each country comparatively uniform. There is no essential difference between the medical faculty at Giessen and the medical faculty at Munich, between the medical faculty at Lyons and the medical faculty at Paris, between the medical faculty at Lund and the medical faculty at Stock-

holm, between the medical faculty at Edinburgh and the medical faculty at Glasgow, even though the German type of medical faculty differs from the French type, the French type from the Swedish type, and the Swedish type from the British type. Similarly, within any country the student bodies are also, generally speaking, of the same character. Finally, the facilities, though varying somewhat, do not differ essentially. With all our progress this is still far, very far, from being the case in the United States today. Between the best and the worst, yes, between the best in Class A and the poorest in Class A, the differences are hardly less pronounced than they were fifteen years ago. The best have improved, the poorest have improved, but there is almost as great a stretch between the best and the poorest as there was between the best and the poorest fifteen years ago. Let us consider the factors involved point by point.

On the face of the papers a four-year high school education followed by two years of college work is in the United States required for entrance to a medical school. This looks like uniformity. As a matter of fact, the high school situation in America is utterly chaotic and the college situation hardly less so. No definite meaning whatsoever can yet be attached to graduation from a four-year high school, or to the completion of two years of college work. It means one thing to be a graduate of the Boston Latin School and an entirely different thing to be the graduate of a four-year rural high school in any section of the country. What two years of college work mean, I defy anybody to say. They may mean two years of hard work under favorable conditions; they may mean two years of spoon feeding by college instructors; they may mean two years of skillful cramming by the successors of the late Widow Nolen. Contrast this chaos with the definite standard of intellectual attainment indicated by the certificate of graduation from a German Gymnasium, a French Lycée, or the honors course of an English secondary school. Our student body is, as a whole, at a

higher level of maturity and training than was the student body ten or fifteen years ago, because fifteen years ago there were no general requirements even in name. But it is still much more heterogeneous than that of any other nation in the world. Meanwhile I should also add that certain medical schools do select their student bodies with such care that in these particular institutions a fairly homogeneous student body is assembled at as high a level as is practicable, though even their students are less well trained, I am sure, than the corresponding student body on the continent, where standards of scholarship are upheld by both professional and lay opinion. Improvement in respect to secondary and college education depends on development of courageous educational leadership—now excessively rare—on respect for scholarship in schools and colleges of education, of which there is just now little evidence, and on the formation of a public opinion which will realize that democracy is not synonymous with intellectual mediocrity and inferiority. The outlook is by no means altogether hopeful because under the prevailing mistaken idea of democracy the American high school and the American college are now trying to be all things to everybody. The study of medicine is an intellectual pursuit, and it cannot reach a high uniform level, unless some way is devised of segregating able and industrious students in competently conducted high schools and colleges.

In the matter of the curriculum, a great reform was accomplished when for a brief non-graded curriculum, running two or three years, a graded curriculum, covering four, was substituted. But the graded four-year curriculum has itself now become more of a hindrance than a help. The block system, which requires that the laboratory subjects precede the clinical subjects, is, in my judgment, sound in theory, just as foreign experience shows that it is sound in practice. The graded four-year curriculum secures this arrangement by separating the pre-clinical sciences from the clinical sub-

jects. Suggestions are from time to time heard, to be sure, that clinical subjects should be once more introduced into the early years; but they come from persons who have forgotten the lessons of our former confusion, who have not examined the confusion which exists in the French medical schools, or who do not know that the English, having tailed with a system similar to the French, have now introduced the block. The little experiments now being made in the form of a weekly clinical lecture in the first and second years may safely be left to take care of themselves. They do not cost the student time enough to do any serious damage and they are not likely to spread; for they will be opposed by both the teachers of the laboratory branches and by clinical teachers who, interested in the study of disease, want a solid foundation for their instruction. Of course, laboratory and clinical subjects must be interwoven; but the interweaving must take place mainly in the clinical years, when the student knows some anatomy and physiology, not in laboratory years before he knows either. For this interweaving the responsibility falls mainly on the clinicians: if they know chemistry, physiology, and pathology, and have time enough to prepare their clinics, the interweaving will inevitably take place.

I have said that the four-year curriculum represents an enormous gain over the two- or three-year repeated curriculum that preceded. But it is not by any means a finality. Its uniformity is nothing short of an absurdity. What sound reason can be given for requiring the able and the less able, the industrious and the less industrious, to complete practically the same course of instruction in the same period of time? In Europe, the able student spends the longer period in obtaining his education, because he obtains more and better training. In America, the effort to force inferior schools to be efficient by requiring a four-year course has crippled the better institutions, with the result that with very few exceptions all American medical students spend the same length of time in the medical school and pursue the same

courses to the same end. More than this, the medical schools, though in name university departments, charge themselves with a degree of responsibility for their students which is utterly out of place anywhere but in an elementary school. These two characteristics: (1) the uniform graded four-year course; (2) the paternal, not to say maternal, responsibility which the university medical school in America feels for its students has compelled the best equipped schools to reduce their enrollment to such a point that their opportunities are open to relatively few and their per capita costs are becoming prohibitively high. If the four-year course is broken up, except as a minimum, if we abandon, once and for all, the notion that there is only one way in which to train a physician, if following this, varied opportunities are introduced so that students may by any one of several ways reach the medical degree within different periods of time, and if, finally, we cease to hold the teaching staff responsible for spoon-feeding the individual student, a far more flexible curriculum would be introduced. Of course, we do not wish to develop in America such monstrosities as the medical schools of Vienna, Berlin or Paris, where the students are so numerous that practical teaching is all but impossible. But there is surely a middle path between the classes limited to twenty-five, which we see in America, and the lecture halls containing hundreds, which may be observed on the continent. This middle path cannot, however, be trodden, unless we abandon the school-like features, which I have just pointed out, and treat medicine in fact as in name as a university discipline.

I have said equipment, personnel and teaching have become more satisfactory in the medical sciences than in the clinics. Practically without exception in Class A schools the laboratory subjects are taught by whole time men, specially trained for their tasks. Many schools are, to be sure, understaffed—mainly a matter of money; but even in most of these, the hard-pressed teachers still frequently find time to keep up a bit of research. Thus, though too great diversity

and discrepancy exist between the well-to-do schools at the top and the poorly supported schools at the bottom, one may perhaps fairly claim that something like the same spirit and endeavor characterizes the teaching of the laboratory subjects in America today. We are better off than France and Great Britain, even if less well off than other countries abroad; and once more, our best is nowhere surpassed; indeed, not often equalled.

As to the clinical side, serious defects, lacks and irregularities are still far too numerous. On the continent a clinic is conceived as containing an adequate number of beds, hardly ever less than one hundred, and usually more, with laboratories for teaching and research and a competent teaching and research staff. In Switzerland, Germany, Austria, Denmark and Sweden, practically every medical faculty has in this sense clinics in medicine, surgery, pediatrics, obstetrics, psychiatry, dermatology, ophthalmology and often neurology. In this same sense—a clinic being viewed as containing abundance of material under complete university control, with laboratories for teaching and research and a professional teaching staff—France possesses at Strasbourg a complete medical school and at Paris abundant material, to be sure, though few real university clinics; outside of Paris and Strasbourg, hardly anything measures up to this standard. Great Britain possesses the germ of a few medical and surgical clinics in the London and Cardiff Units, and a pediatric clinic at Glasgow. But a fully developed university clinic, in the sense in which I am speaking, does not today exist in Great Britain. In America—if one is not too strict as respects amount of material—one could perhaps find in our eighty-odd medical schools a dozen or so university medical clinics, six or eight university surgical clinics, five or six pediatric clinics, five or six psychiatric clinics, one or two obstetrical clinics; special clinics in the German sense in neurology, dermatology and ophthalmology are unknown. Contrasted with the poverty of a decade ago, progress has

been marked, for such clinics, as have been created in this brief period, are, though too limited in amount of material, admirably equipped and well supported; but we have a long road to travel before a desirable minimum has become general. Meanwhile, let me add, there has been a striking and quite general improvement in all hospitals, whether teaching or non-teaching. The facilities for teaching, treatment and in a measure for research have improved immensely within a decade. What is even more significant, ideals have been strengthened; men realize that more is expected of them. Hence, more and better work is going on. This is all to the good and I am happy to acknowledge and record it; but it is wholesome for us to realize at the same time the great gaps that exist on the clinical side in our teaching institutions, the great strides that still have to be made before we can present even a tolerably even and a tolerably unbroken front.

In respect to clinical teaching, with all due sympathy for the State of Connecticut, the real scandals in the teaching of regular medicine have been almost entirely suppressed and eliminated; clinical teachers undoubtedly give more time and thought to their school duties than they did a decade ago. In a few places, full-time teaching has been introduced; in a few others, a more or less close approach to it.

In the strongest institutions, of which I am now speaking, perhaps a half dozen in all, the material conditions which make for good teaching and productive clinical research are perhaps the best to be found anywhere in the world. It remains, I am free to say, to be seen whether they are worth what they cost, whether patients will be so much better cared for, teaching so much better done and research so much more fertile, that the expenditure of money and energy will be fully justified. A heavy responsibility rests upon these favored groups, a responsibility of which, taken altogether, I believe them fully conscious. Of the remaining schools—over seventy in number—we

may fairly say that clinical teaching has been partly professionalized in some, hardly at all in some and not at all in the rest. Thus to a considerable, though varying extent, clinical teaching continues to be an incident in the life of a busy practitioner. The good practitioner is, and should be, the busy practitioner; the teacher, however, needs leisure—more leisure than the practitioner—to read, study and investigate. The two callings are inherently at war, just as all serious purposes in life get in one another's way. We have as yet neither institutional nor scientific standards strong enough to control, as, on the whole, they did control in the Germany of the good old days.

At this point I should like to call attention to a distinct peculiarity in our American situation. On the continent, except, I believe, at Brussels (Brussels is only a partial exception), universities are state-supported; the hospitals used for teaching are sometimes nationally supported; sometimes provincially supported, sometimes municipally supported; only occasionally are they, and as a rule even then in part only, supported by endowment. But in any case, the clinical teaching privileges of the state-supported and controlled university are so unrestricted that, educationally viewed, the medical faculty is a state affair. In Great Britain, on the other hand, despite the occasional state subvention, the medical faculty is in private hands.

Both systems are found in America. East of the Mississippi, medical schools are privately supported; west of the Mississippi, they are mainly tax-supported. In general, it would look easier to raise the necessary sums by taxation than by private subscription; for an infinitesimal tax levy will produce a considerable sum, while \$1,000,000 in cash must be raised every time an endowed institution needs an additional income of \$50,000. Thus far, however, it has proved easier to interest a small group of private donors than to stir the entire body politic. Hence, the leadership in medical education in the United States lies at this moment incontestably with institutions under private management.

Only one of the states, Michigan, has provided a plant comparable with the best plants of the endowed schools; Iowa will shortly be in the same class; Wisconsin is about to start a hospital of moderate size; Illinois has ambitious plans, the realization of which has begun. The other states lag behind—some of the richest lag amazingly far behind. Meanwhile, two municipalities, Cincinnati and Louisville, have given local medical schools complete control of their respective city hospitals, and one, Rochester, New York, has been wise and far-sighted enough to make its new city hospital part and parcel of the university hospital of the local university, an endowed institution. Fragmentary privileges, sometimes very valuable, as at the Boston City Hospital, sometimes almost valueless, are conceded to endowed institutions by other municipalities. In general, however, the vast educational potentialities of city and state hospitals are either wasted or very ineffectively utilized. Meanwhile, the cost of maintaining separate university hospitals by subscription or endowment is so great that, unless already existing facilities are made available under unqualified university control, our clinical development will be heavily handicapped, as compared with that of continental nations; for our universities, under necessity of providing out of their own funds hospital as well as teaching budgets, will be seriously disadvantaged, as compared with European universities which obtain, without expense to the university budget, hospital facilities far greater than we can possibly endow. In this matter the state universities will enjoy an advantage in comparison with our endowed universities, if they succeed in obtaining the funds necessary to provide teaching and research on a liberal basis.

The brief survey which I have made shows, I think, that, though we have made more progress than any other nation in the last decade, though our best is in certain respects equal to the best anywhere and in one or two respects perhaps superior, still the truly excellent is still in America decidedly the exceptional. Let us not forget that. I re-

peat—in medical education in America, the truly excellent is still exceptional. We are still near the beginning. Our few medical, surgical, pediatric and psychiatric clinics need to be many times multiplied; and we must now begin to develop special teaching and research clinics in important fields hardly as yet touched.

The frank exposition which I have now completed gives no ground for discouragement, but as little for complacency. We have accomplished much; but much more remains to be accomplished. May I briefly indicate some details?

The whole country needs to reconsider the problem of secondary and college education. We are passing through a quantitative orgy. For years we have been mainly engaged in getting more people into high schools and colleges. They are all bursting with pupils. It is time to look at the qualitative side—to ask ourselves where and how we are to get teachers and what we are to expect of students in the way of intellectual performance. It is a question that this Council can do nothing about. But the people at large and those charged with secondary and college administration must show unwonted courage and intelligence if order is to be brought out of the existing chaos.

The Council can, however, make an important contribution through a reclassification to be effective after a period of years. I deprecate haste, for haste is apt to get fulfillment of the letter rather than of the spirit—and it is the spirit that counts. And, inasmuch as our weakness is now mainly on the clinical side, I should hope that the new classification would emphasize clinical development. If a clinic is conceived as containing something approaching one hundred beds with laboratories for teaching and research and a staff unconditionally chosen by the university on the basis of competency, and if, further, such clinics in medicine, surgery, pediatrics and obstetrics are considered indispensable to a Class A school, a new classification would take place spontaneously. In another decade, other subjects could be similarly treated. It will take us twenty or thirty or forty

years to round ourselves out—but the precise period need not trouble us, if we are steadily, never hurriedly, never rashly, moving towards a definite goal.

There is another point that needs clarifying. Our medical schools are now, thanks, above all, to the energy and wisdom of Dr. Bevan and his associates on this Council, practically all university departments. But the universities are by no means all conscious of just what that means. University connections mean university ideals, university contacts, university support. University ideals include effective teaching and productivity; how many university heads apply the same standards of teaching and research to medicine as to physics? University connections mean university contacts; but there can be no effective university contacts if the medical school is a practically autonomous and self-contained institution situated in a remote town or, worse still, is divided in the middle, the laboratory half of it on the university campus, the clinical half left to the tender mercies of busy practitioners, whether ten or a hundred miles distant. The medical school is, as a matter of fact, an organic thing, laboratories and clinics requiring intimate interaction; a split school is, therefore, in my judgment, utterly untenable. Moreover, the entire school needs contact with the rest of the university. In some cases, this has become impossible; every effort should be made in these cases to circumvent the disadvantages due to separation. Finally, university connection means university support. Not the dean or the faculty, but the president and trustees should procure the funds needed to develop the medical school, just as they now procure the funds needed to provide for the colleges of art and science. The business of the medical faculty is to look after patients, students and science. They have no time to hunt money. Deans and professors in colleges of art don't have to go begging for money. Hence, though our medical schools have become university departments in name, they are not yet fully university departments in fact; nor will they be, until the medical faculties train presidents and trustees. Let me

add in fairness that there are exceptions—a few presidents and treasurers take as much interest in financing their medical schools as they do in football—a few!

May I add one further word touching on teaching personnel? The men who, a generation ago, gave American medicine its momentum were men of cosmopolitan training; they knew the best in our own country, Great Britain, France and Germany. They read and spoke German and French; they had intimate personal associations with the prominent European workers. As conditions have, however, improved in America, workers have tended to stay at home. The best of them can read scientific German or French, but amazingly few can really read or speak any language but their own; and they have no such personal intimacies as their predecessors. Now, however much we have improved, we are not good enough to be sufficient unto ourselves, and we never shall be. Science is international; it advances in most unexpected fashion, now here, now there. And stimulus does not communicate itself best through the printed page. Men must know each other and work with each other. Mere Cook's Touring through scientific laboratories abroad does not suffice. We must return to the old way of spending a couple of years in Europe, just as Europeans are getting in the way of spending a year or two with us. At the moment, expense makes this a serious matter; perhaps it can never be as common as is desirable. But for the leaders and those who aspire to leadership, cosmopolitan training is absolutely indispensable. If the fact is once recognized, ways can probably be found to circumvent the economic difficulties.

ABRAHAM FLEXNER.

Education and Industry

WHILE motoring through one of the rich agricultural sections of Pennsylvania not long ago, I observed one of the many skillfully arranged advertisements, on which the historical information was given that a small borough a few miles ahead had been founded by a man who had also established in that vicinity a forge. This forge was used during the Revolution to manufacture bullets for the Continental Armies. It was also used to manufacture tools and implements of iron which were needed in the neighborhood. It may, therefore, be said to have been the steel plant of that day.

Motoring to the eastward fifty miles, we came in full view of the Bethlehem steel plant. During the World War, the Bethlehem Company manufactured and delivered to England, within a period of eight months, 25 submarines. This same plant made 19,000 big guns, used by the Allies during the war—more guns than Germany possessed when she signed the armistice.

In negotiating contracts with the Bethlehem Company, Lord Kitchener told Mr. Schwab that he would be satisfied if the Bethlehem Company could deliver to England one million shells during the first year of the war. The Bethlehem plant actually turned out 36,000,000 shells that year—three millions in one month instead of one million in twelve months. Furthermore, this modern steel plant manufactured one-seventh of all the shells shot by the Allies during the World War.

Leaving Chicago and passing through Gary, Cleveland, Youngstown, Sharon, the Pittsburgh District, Johnstown, Burnham, Lewistown, Duncannon, Harrisburg, Steelton, Philadelphia and Wilmington, one observes hundreds of great modern steel plants, which represent property values extending into the billions, which give employment to hun-

dreds of thousands of men, and which are engaged in manufacturing articles essential to our comfort, health, happiness and prosperity. These industries have been founded for the primary purpose of serving the needs of mankind, and have been potent factors in the development of our civilization.

At the time when the forge was supplying the needs of our fathers by manufacturing tools and implements of iron, the spinning wheel and the hand loom formed another agency which was serving one of the vital necessities of life. These, too, have had their development, and in their places are to be found great modern textile plants which have been established in many sections of the country. These plants also represent enormous property values, give employment to hundreds of thousands of workers and are meeting the needs of mankind, on a scale commensurate with the requirements of the present day. They could not survive if their services were not indispensable to the needs of our civilization.

In the days of the forge, the spinning wheel and the hand loom, we were an agricultural people, and our plowing was being done with a crude implement, very much like the one Elisha was using to turn the brown earth in the Valley of Ajalon when Elijah cast his mantle upon him. In any of our great agricultural regions, with the coming of spring, three men and a disk plow, drawn by a tireless tractor and trailing a harrow, will turn twelve furrows at a time and prepare more ground, in better form, in one day than any three farmers in the days of George Washington could have prepared in two weeks.

Charles Carroll, the last living signer of the Declaration of Independence, turned the first shovelful of earth in 1828 for the construction of the first railroad in the United States. Thus, as President Hadley aptly said, "One man's life formed the connecting link between the political revolution of one century and the industrial revolution of the other."

In 1829 the School Board of Lancaster, Ohio, refused to permit a debate on the practical use of the railroads, saying:

You are welcome to use the schoolhouse to debate all proper questions in, but such things as railroads are impossibilities and rank infidelity. There is nothing in the word of God about them. If He had intended that His intelligent creatures should travel at the frightful speed of fifteen miles an hour, by steam, He would have clearly foretold it through His holy prophets.

In 1830 there were twenty-three miles of railroad in this country. In 1920 there were over 250,000 miles of main line in the United States—more than one-third of the total railroad mileage of the world. Railroads, steamship lines, and modern means of communication, including the cable, the wireless and the radio, have revolutionized the commercial and political affairs of the world and have not only bound all sections of our country together but have brought the whole world into more intimate and cordial relation with us.

Equally striking changes have taken place in the field of finance. After the battle of Trenton Congress invested Washington with full power to raise and equip a greatly increased army, but gave him no money with which to pay the bills. Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, being appealed to, sent to Washington all the hard money he could obtain. Washington wrote Morris that he needed \$50,000 at once. The money was borrowed from a friend by Morris on his personal note and delivered by messenger to Washington the following day. In colonial times extensive banking facilities were not needed to meet the needs of a sparsely settled population and small scale industry.

The World War cost \$186,000,000,000 in money and credit. The United States raised billions for financing the part which she had in that conflict and in addition thereto loaned many other billions to our allies. This action was possible because of the banking facilities which the country possessed. Every community today has its banks which furnish the credit for financing the farms, the factories, and all other business and philanthropic enterprises. They are serving everyday needs of all classes of citizens.

Similar developments in every phase of the business and commercial life of the nation have taken place. The country

has grown and expanded from a population of 4,000,000 to 110,000,000, and from an area of 300,000 square miles on the Atlantic Ocean to 3,000,000 square miles—equal approximately to five-sixths of the area of all the countries of Europe.

The inventive skill and genius of man, the achievements in scientific research and experimentation in physics, chemistry, and biology, the modern methods of agriculture, the gigantic development of facilities of transportation and communication, and similar forces working in harmonious cooperation have contributed to these marvelous developments.

But coincident with the action of these forces profound changes in economic thought and political practice have exerted a powerful influence on those great forward movements which have revolutionized our civilization.

During the Middle Ages it was the current belief that one party to a transaction could profit only at the expense of the other party. Heavy duties on imports and exports were employed to keep trade at home and thus prevent the wealth of the community from falling into the hands of outsiders. In the year 1776 Adam Smith published "The Wealth of Nations." In that book he crystallized the idea that was being formulated in the minds of many that isolation means poverty and weakness, that exchange-cooperation makes for wealth and power, and that no permanent exchange of goods, ideas, or services can be maintained unless all parties to the various transactions profit, in one way or another, thereby. In many respects the teachings of Adam Smith on this point are still an aspiration rather than an achievement. However, substantial progress has been made.

There was a time, for instance, when bankers were little more than money lenders. They now see clearly, however, that their prosperity, indeed the discharge of their obligations, involves much more than the successful discounting of well-secured notes. The American Bankers' Association has organized an Agricultural Commission whose duty it is to recommend ways and means for improving agricul-

tural conditions. The Commission has endorsed the action of certain western banks in buying blooded cattle and selling them on easy terms to the farmers in their territory.

The Director of the Commission, at the recent Atlantic City meeting of the Bankers' Association, recommended that each bank undertake to finance at least one worthy boy or girl through college, the money necessary to be loaned, and the bank to be protected by a life insurance policy.

The sense of trusteeship, so plainly shown in numerous ways by the Bankers' Association, is symptomatic of the growing realization in all lines of business that all parties to the transactions in our commercial and industrial life, producer and consumer alike, must profit if there is to be peace and prosperity for any of them.

The manufacturers of agricultural implements engage actively in the promotion of programs for the education of the farmers. Safety devices for the protection of employees are installed at great expense by factories. Mechanical agencies to relieve workers of drudgery and physical burdens are provided also in all fields of human activity. Schools and hospitals, teachers, nurses and physicians are provided by railroads and the great commercial and industrial concerns of the country for meeting the physical and intellectual needs of their employees. In some instances the voice of the worker is heard in the establishment of general policies at the council table and the principle of profit sharing has been adopted. All these have been established in recognition of corporate obligation, and in the spirit of service, justice and fair play. That attitude is in harmony with the basic character of our people and the spirit of our institutions.

The keynote of American life is individualism. Our democracy itself is a social device designed to promote the material and spiritual welfare of the individuals composing it. It is a means to an end—not an end in itself. Back of every specific practice and every motivating ideal in our complex relationships stands the individual striving with

what light he possesses to make a better living and to live a better life.

The foundations of American individualism were laid by the pioneer. Self-reliant, courageous and asking no favors from fortune, he blazed his way from Plymouth Rock to the Golden Gate. The genius of the pioneer for cooperative group action, however, was no less pronounced than his independence of spirit. It is just that capacity for team play, without loss of personal independence, that characterizes the collective individualism of America.

In the Declaration of Independence the colonists served notice to the world that America was not a private estate to be exploited by any special interests. The Revolutionary War was fought to a successful conclusion and, in due time, a constitution for the new nation was adopted in the name of "WE, THE PEOPLE."

These opening words of the preamble sound the slogan of democracy and mark the beginning of a new era in the long struggle for human liberty. They committed the people of the United States to a nation-wide cooperative effort to

"form a more perfect union,
establish justice,
insure domestic tranquillity,
provide for the common defense,
promote the general welfare, and
secure the blessings of liberty"

for themselves and their posterity forever.

The signing of the Declaration of Independence did not secure the political freedom of America. Nor did the adoption of a constitution in the name of "WE, THE PEOPLE" establish, at a stroke, whole-hearted, intelligent, and continuous cooperation all along the line in the conquest of a continent and in the building of a home for a great people. It takes time to educate a whole nation, and the problems set in the progress of our national history have been increasingly more difficult. As an instance, the population of the United States in 1900 was about 75,000,000, its wealth

88 billion dollars, and its annual income 18 billion dollars. In 1920 the population was 105 million—an increase of 40 per cent in twenty years, the national wealth 400 billion dollars—an increase of 350 per cent, and the annual income 70 billion dollars—an increase of 280 per cent.

The industrial revolution provided the mechanical devices and the productive organization by means of which the material basis for this conspicuous growth in population and wealth was secured. Correlated with this development has been a growing realization of the fact that we are all members of one body. Without that realization our material prosperity would have been impossible. It has inspired the constant widening of the range of cooperation, has intensified the spirit of fair play, and has refined our notions of integrity in business. At the same time, our democratic organization has maintained an open road for merit, and has afforded an unlimited field for the expression of free initiative in productive service.

The outcome of this fortunate combination of mechanical appliances, economic sanity, and political freedom has been the establishment of a sensitive network of interrelationships and interdependencies upon the integrity of which our very lives depend. Our food and drugs come to us from the corners of the earth and we must trust to the honesty of men unknown to us for their purity. We are incompetent to judge the quality of most of the things we buy and use; we must depend upon the word of men whose business it is to know in each particular case. The opportunities for service have increased many fold in these last days, but the opportunities for neglect of duty, for breach of trust, and for wrong doing have increased with equal rapidity. Relationships between man and man are not personal and direct as they were in Colonial days. It is vastly more difficult to fix responsibility now than it was then, and it requires an exactness of knowledge, a keenness of discrimination, and a fineness of conscience to do the right thing in our involved and impersonal relationships that were quite unknown when living conditions were simpler.

Half the population of the United States, according to the Census report, lives north of the Ohio and Potomac rivers, and east of the Mississippi. Most of the great industries are concentrated here in proximity to the labor supply and the markets of the world. Seventy-six per cent of the farmers and 74 per cent of the land values of the United States, however, are found outside this area. Without transportation service the factories would have to close, and famine would quickly overtake the industrial and urban populations. Without transportation service the farms would be isolated, the farmers would have to go back to the primitive plow and spinning wheel, and the whole country would become as sparsely settled as was Kentucky in 1824. On the other hand, without farms, factories, markets, and banks, the railroads could not operate.

Labor, capital, and management; agriculture, mining, manufacturing, transportation, commerce, and banking have contributed to the upbuilding of the nation. Each is dependent upon the other, and the failure of one is the failure of all.

Notwithstanding the marvelous development of our basic industries, and probably because of that very development, they have always faced difficult problems of mutual adjustment, and the situation today is nothing short of bewildering. The bulk, weight, value, and perishability of commodities; the length, speed, and cost of haul to market; and the conflicting and competitive interests of localities vary so widely that the problem of cooperation on a basis fair to all is a most complex and difficult one. New centers of production and new enterprises are being developed constantly, the volume of business varies greatly from time to time and from place to place, and continuous readjustments must be made to meet the changing conditions.

Under these circumstances, the maintenance of a just balance among the elements that contribute to national welfare, to the end that all may derive the optimum profit from their varied and interdependent transactions, demands the possession of an authoritative body of facts upon which to base judgments and decisions. The maintenance of that

just balance demands also a high order of intelligence and mental integrity to interpret those facts aright. It demands, further, an abiding spirit of service and an ingrained desire to do the right thing in directing individual and group conduct to the best interests of all.

This means nothing less than education of all the people all the time. This education must be absolutely non-partisan and impartial, and it must be ceaseless, untiring, and patient. The structure of modern cooperative society must have a more adequate representation in the curricula of schools and colleges in order that this and coming generations may not be overwhelmed by the problems of conduct they will be called upon to face. They must be endowed with a grasp of facts and imbued with a social conscience commensurate with the responsibilities that will fall to them.

A recognition of this imperative need for impartial, non-partisan, and continuous research, publicity, and education in regard to our basic economic and social activities and especially in regard to transportation—the connecting link between all the others—led to the organization of the National Transportation Institute. According to the by-laws:

The object of the National Transportation Institute shall be to conduct non-partisan and impartial investigations and research into every kind of transportation and the relation of transportation agencies to each other and to Agriculture, Industry, Finance, Trade, and Commerce, and to disseminate the facts thus acquired to the public.

The by-laws state further that:

The Institute shall not in any way become directly or indirectly the representative either of transportation agencies, producers, shippers, or of any special group or groups.

The Board of Directors is comprised of representative men of affairs who are recognized as outstanding leaders in agriculture, mining, manufacturing, transportation, commerce, labor, and finance.

The by-laws provide for a Research Council whose duty shall be to make impartial investigations in problems of trans-

portation and related industries. The research work is under the direction of a council which must consist of not less than nine nor more than fifteen members. The Council is made up of men who have achieved high distinction in economic research in this country.

The results of the studies made by the Research Council will be made known to the public through the Public Relations Division, under the direct supervision of the president of the Institute. The by-laws of the Institute provide that the information disseminated shall be based solely upon the findings and approvals of the Research Council.

Arrangements have already been made with colleges and universities in various parts of the country to conduct short courses in transportation, and the Institute has secured the services of the following lecturers:

Prof. Emory R. Johnson, University of Pennsylvania.

Prof. Harold G. Moulton, Institute of Economics.

Prof. Frank M. Dixon, Princeton University.

Prof. T. W. Van Metre, Columbia University.

Prof. Charles L. Roper, Syracuse University.

Prof. Arthur H. Blanchard, University of Michigan.

Prof. Harold Whitehead, Boston University.

Prof. G. W. Dyer, Vanderbilt University.

The function of organizing an Education Division in the Institute has been assigned to me. The work of this division will be to cooperate with educational leaders, institutions and other agencies interested in helping our people to arrive at an adequate and proper comprehension of the great economic, social and industrial problems which have developed within the field of transportation and related activities. We shall select a group of educational experts to give professional advice and approval to the activities which shall be undertaken. The experts chosen shall be subject to confirmation by the executive officers of the National Education Association and the American Council on Education.

The public generally, and even boys and girls, in the days of the forge and the spinning wheel, understood clearly the economic basis upon which these and other industrial agencies

were operated. They were in intimate contact with the whole round of industries, largely local in nature, and participated more or less actively in them. They possessed an appreciation of the service which various agencies were rendering in providing the limited necessities required for the simple life of those early days. They also understood the relation of prevailing industrial agencies to the home, to the farm, to the merchant, to the shipper, and to society in general.

Conditions in respect to such matters are entirely different in these days of large scale production and impersonal relations. Boys and girls and the public generally do not understand the economic principles upon which industry, commerce and other basic activities are conducted. Yet the general welfare and prosperity of the country are dependent upon our people as a whole possessing an accurate knowledge of the way our system of production and distribution works, and having an intelligent understanding of the principles underlying its organization and operation.

The whole mental atmosphere of the classroom should be modified in view of these facts. The lesson must be taught from the primary school to the university that America is a great cooperative enterprise, depending industrially and socially upon what each individual contributes to the solution of its problems. From the day laborer to the managing head of our great industrial and financial institutions there must be developed the spirit of service, the doctrine that he who contributes most for the common good will reap the largest returns in personal profit and distinction.

The National Transportation Institute will in no way obtrude itself in the field of public education. It has, however, a vital interest in educational progress and achievement. It has abundant resources of information which it wishes to make available where it may be of service. It desires to cooperate in every legitimate and professional way in the development of education programs in the public schools and the colleges and universities so that the coming generations may possess a sound understanding of the phi-

losophy of our democracy, a clear appreciation of their duties and obligations as citizens, and a sane comprehension of the relation of all groups and interests in our modern industrial society. The Institute desires to join with all the forces of the country engaged in developing the true American spirit by instilling in the soul of every citizen in our land the duty of discharging his full obligation of intelligent and conscientious *service*.

International Educational Relations

WORLD peace is one of the liveliest topics of the time. It is being discussed from every conceivable point of view, by out-and-out pacifists and by those who believe in military preparedness as the only sure guarantee of security. Yet through all the diverse schemes for a warless world there runs one common thread of thought. It seems to be taken for granted everywhere that education is the agency for ultimate achievement of that mutual understanding and good-will which are the essential foundations of dynamic peace.

The international migration of students has been going on from time immemorial, generally in a haphazard and unsystematic way, depending largely on individual initiative. Efforts are now being made to organize definitely for its encouragement—as witness the many scholarships and fellowships similar to those of the Rhodes Trust, the international exchange of professorships, the organization of an International Federation of National Education Associations, and the establishment of numerous other agencies like the Institute of International Education as centers of information and assistance in the practical administration of foreign student exchange.

Higher education is of necessity vitally concerned with international relations. As science continues to annihilate space and nations are inevitably drawn into ever-closer intellectual and economic cooperation, young America cannot fairly be said to be either liberally educated or qualified for leadership unless it is trained to cope intelligently with things as they are. The college man or woman of the future must understand and be able to interpret life not only nationally but internationally.

An individual nation acting alone cannot make much progress toward world peace. No more can an individual college

acting alone make much progress in solving the national and international problems of education. Team play is essential for maximum success—a team play that is inspired by the spirit of service and sacrifice and yet is operated with the utmost technical skill and knowledge of the rules of the game. Such team play won the war.

During the war American colleges and universities banded themselves together in two separate organizations, one for cooperation on national educational problems and the other for the maintenance of American headquarters for university men in war service in England and France. Both these organizations have persisted since the war; the former, the American Council on Education, dealing with the national aspects of higher education, and the latter, the American University Union in Europe, serving as a *liaison* between the higher education systems of England and France on the one hand and that of the United States on the other.

Though the original purpose of the American University Union in Europe was accomplished when the war was over, it had so demonstrated its power for developing those international educational relations that make for mutual understanding and good-will, that it has been kept up by the American colleges and has laid a firm foundation for lasting and significant progress toward international cooperation.

The British and the French manifest the same cordial spirit toward this enterprise as is expressed by America through the foreign headquarters of the Union. The education offices and the leading educators of both nations frequently call on the Union for assistance and are ever ready to help realize constructive plans for mutually beneficial undertakings. The foreign attitude and their understanding of the far-reaching consequences of the work of the Union was clearly stated by the Prince of Wales at the sixth annual banquet of the London headquarters. He attended the banquet and voiced British sentiment on this subject as follows:

There are special reasons which made me look forward to this

evening. In the first place, when I look round and see all the harm that war has done to the world, it is a real relief to come in contact with something which owes its origin directly to the war, and yet has brought civilization nothing but good. Your union came into being in 1917 to deal with a situation which war had created. There is no doubt, I think, that but for the war its birth might have been long delayed, and the English-speaking race would have been all the poorer in consequence; it would have been the poorer by a war child which is growing up into a great power for peace.

Secondly, I am much in sympathy with the main object you have in view. You aim especially at giving your young men the double benefit of a university education and of overseas experience. That, in principle, has been my own education, and well do I know its worth. I did not, it is true, combine the two things simultaneously, as your students do; I went first to a university and then rounded off what I had tried to learn there by traveling many thousands of miles and by visiting most places in the world. Although the program was different, the result, I hope, has been the same; and, if I may say so, it is the finest education a man can have. The men of this generation in your country and in my country have got to learn to be men of the world in the true sense of the term; we have got to cure ourselves of any small feeling of remoteness from our fellow-men across the seas. As that great Ambassador and great gentleman, Walter Hines Page, once said, we have got to drop that word "remote" from our vocabulary and from our thought. To this end, nothing will help more surely than the system which your union is building up.

So far, I have been speaking of the work of your union in its widest application. May I now say something of one particular branch, your British division, whose activities naturally make a special appeal to me. It is my firm conviction that the foundation of this branch here in London will prove in the future to have been of incalculable importance to the English-speaking race. I do not mean only to those members of it who have a university education, but I mean to the race as a whole.

Seven years ago, one of our greatset statesmen wrote to Mr. Page the following words, which I should like to read to you: "I have now lived a long life; but, if I have been fortunate enough to contribute even in the smallest degree to drawing close the bonds that unite our two countries, I shall have done something compared with which all else I may have attempted counts in my eyes as nothing."

Those words suggest an ideal which, I can assure you, is a very real thing to all my generation in this country. I have had the privilege of seeing your armies in France and your citizens at home, when

I visited the United States in 1919; I have also met quite a few of your students over here; from what I have seen and from the friends I have met, I feel that ideal is no less real to our contemporaries on the other side of the Atlantic. We shall have many opportunities of furthering this ideal, and we must lose none of them; but here, ready to hand, in this union of yours, is an opportunity which has already been seized, and which is rapidly becoming a great power for the good of us all. I know enough of our British universities to be certain of one thing—that whatever the graduates and undergraduates you send here may or may not learn during their residence, they will at any rate learn to love those universities and will, I hope, think not too badly of the land which instituted them. And when they go home they will, I know, not forget it.

That you are welcome here, I need hardly say—all of you, and as many more like you as your country can spare us. Nor do I doubt that a welcome no less warm awaits our own university men over there; but are we making the most of it? It is to our national credit that it was an Englishman who first gave practical expression to the idea which animates your union. Cecil Rhodes, a pioneer in all that he did, was the pioneer of this movement; and we in this country must follow up the trail which he blazed, not merely by extending to your graduates and undergraduates our hospitality but by encouraging our own university men to take advantage of yours. There are fifty-four American colleges and universities which subscribe to your union; I should like to see a resident British graduate in every one of them.

From the foregoing it is clear how great is the opportunity for real progress in international understanding through educational relations and how little has been done to grasp these opportunities. That the opportunity is recognized, is indicated by numerous recent efforts to encourage and organize student exchanges. Two of these were presented in the last number of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Others are taking shape in the Y. M. C. A., the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, the National Highway Education Board, the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial and the Institute of International Education. All are founded on the same conception; namely, that education is the sure road to international understandings that insure human progress.

The appearance of these and many other projects and suggestions for developing international educational relations

has naturally raised the question how this enterprise can be organized so as to secure the largest results with the least lost motion. It is obviously confusing and wasteful to have a separate organization for each undertaking, each dealing with some particular phase of the problem and with some particular group of colleges. It is also clearly essential that the educational institutions themselves should initiate, control, administer and support any agency that is created to operate in this field. It is in addition evident that national and international problems in education not only are closely related, but that they also are best solved when their inter-relations are recognized.

As a first step toward better organization for the development of international educational relations, a merger has recently been consummated between the American University Union in Europe and the American Council on Education. By the terms of the merger, the same group of men who have as trustees of the union so successfully administered its affairs will continue to manage them as the Council's Committee on the American University Union. Financial security for this work for the next five years is guaranteed by a grant to the Council from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, which has agreed to match the Council's income dollar for dollar up to \$35,000 a year. All the money from the Memorial will be devoted to development of international educational relations.

As a further coordination of effort in the same direction, the Institute of International Education has become a constituent member of the Council. Negotiations are in progress to determine how the Council and the Institute can cooperate so as effectively to achieve their common objective without duplication of effort. The coordination of work between these agencies is a long step toward coordination of the activities of all agencies in this field.

There is thus developing an organization that offers to every college and university of recognized standing an opportunity for service and cooperation not only in solving national

problems, but also in creating international understanding. The Council truly represents higher education in America because it is owned and operated by the institutions of higher education themselves. For this reason also it commands confidence, both in this country and abroad. If the colleges and universities of America rally to its support and continue to develop it, they can both increase their own powers of training men for enlightened service and do their bit toward the achievement of international understanding, which means ultimate world peace.

C. R. MANN.

Pending Education Bills

THE FOLLOWING bills dealing with education are now before the Education Committees of the Senate and House:

S. 694.

Introduced by Mr. Kenyon (By Request), December 10, 1923. "To provide for the world-wide extension of education by the cooperation of national Governments."

This provides for the creation of a Commission to consist of the U. S. Commissioner of Education and two other persons appointed by the President "To extend, in cooperation with other nations, education to all mankind." The program proposed is "The removal of illiteracy from all mankind; instruction in the applications of science and mechanics to the work of the world and the physical welfare of mankind or world health, international or world ethics promotive of just and humane government the world over."

An appropriation of \$10,000,000 is authorized to carry out these provisions.

S. 1337.

Introduced by Mr. Sterling, December 17, 1923. "To create a Department of Education, to authorize appropriations for the conduct of said department, to authorize the appropriation of money to encourage the States in the promotion and support of education, and for other purposes."

This is identical with the Sterling-Towner Bill of last session. It provides for the creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet; for the transfer of the Bureau of Education to this Department; for the authorization of appropriation of \$500,000 to carry on research in (a) illiteracy; (b) immigrant education; (c) public school education, and especially rural education; (d) physical education, including health education, recreation,

and sanitation; (c) preparation and supply of competent teachers for the public schools; (f) higher education; and in such other fields as, in the judgment of the Secretary of Education, "may require attention and study"; for appropriations totaling \$100,000,000 "to encourage the states" in removing illiteracy, in Americanization of immigrants, in equalizing educational opportunities, in promoting physical education and in preparation of teachers for public school service; for the creation of a National Council on Education of 100 members consisting of the chief educational authorities of the states and 25 educators and 25 persons not educators appointed by the Secretary of Education.

S. 1409.

Introduced by Mr. Fess, December 17, 1923. "To provide for the promotion of physical education in the United States through cooperation with the states in the preparation and payment of supervisors and teachers of physical education, including health supervisors and school nurses, to appropriate money and regulate its expenditure, and for other purposes."

This bill provides for an appropriation of \$10,000,000 for the first year and for subsequent years an amount sufficient to allow \$1.00 per child of school age to each state for the purpose of cooperating with the states in developing physical education. There is created a Division of Physical Education in the Bureau of Education, and an appropriation of \$300,000 is authorized to administer this work. An appropriation of \$200,000 annually is authorized to the Public Health Service to cooperate with the Bureau of Education in this work. No money may be apportioned to a state unless a sum equally as large is provided by a state or by local authorities for the same purpose.

S. 1410.

Introduced by Mr. Fess, December 17, 1923. "To create a national university at the seat of the Federal Government."

The purposes of the proposed national university, as defined in this bill are: "First. To promote the advance of science, pure and applied, and of the liberal and fine arts by original investigation and research and by such other means as may appear suitable to the purpose in view. Second, to provide for the higher instruction and training of men and women for posts of importance and responsibility in the public service of state or nation, and for the practice of such callings and professions as may require for their worthy pursuit a higher training. Third, to cooperate with the scientific departments of the Federal Government, with the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts founded upon the proceeds of the Federal land grant of the Act of 1862, with the state universities, and with other institutions of higher learning." The university shall not confer academic degrees but shall be open only to graduates of recognized colleges. The governing board is a Board of Trustees, consisting of the Commissioner of Education and 12 members appointed by the President for a period of twelve years. There shall also be an Advisory Council composed of one representative from each state in the Union. This representative shall be the President of the State University wherever such an institution exists, otherwise a citizen of the state appointed by the governor. All by-laws and general rules for the conduct of the university are subject to review by the Advisory Council. The Board of Trustees is authorized to accept gifts and legacies from private individuals. The sum of \$500,000 is authorized to be appropriated for the use of the university for the fiscal year 1924-25.

S. 2590.

Introduced by Mr. Fess, February 22, 1924. "To amend sections 1, 3, and 6 of an Act entitled 'An Act to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.'"

This bill is identical with H. R. 5478. It has just been favorably reported by the House Committee.

S. 2713.

Introduced by Mr. Capper, March 3, 1924. "To provide for the promotion of physical education in the United States through cooperation with the states in the preparation and payment of supervisors and teachers of physical education, and for other purposes."

This bill is identical with H. R. 4800 (see below), excepting that it includes no authorization for appropriation.

H. R. 157

Introduced by Mr. Purnell, December 5, 1923. "To authorize the more complete endowment of agricultural experiment stations, and for other purposes."

This authorizes appropriations, in addition to the amounts now received by agricultural experiment stations, of gradually increasing sums beginning with \$15,000 for the first year and ending with \$85,000 for the seventh year, and annually thereafter. These funds are applicable "only to paying the necessary expenses of conducting investigations or making experiments bearing directly on the production, manufacture, preparation, use, distribution, and marketing of agricultural products and including such scientific researches as have for their purpose the establishment and maintenance of a permanent and efficient agricultural industry, and such economic and sociological investigations as have for their purpose the development and improvement of the rural life, and for printing and disseminating the results of said researches."

The Secretary of Agriculture is required before July 1 each year to ascertain whether the state is complying with the provisions of this act and is entitled to receive its share of the appropriations, or to determine the amount which each state is entitled to receive. If the Secretary of Agriculture withholds any portion of the funds, the state is au-

thorized to appeal to Congress from the determination of the Secretary of Agriculture.

H. R. 633.

Introduced by Mr. Dallinger, December 5, 1923, and reported out of Committee, February 7, 1924. "To provide for a Library Information Service in the Bureau of Education."

This bill authorizes an appropriation of \$23,500 for the creation in the Bureau of Education of a service to be called the Division of Library Service. The purpose of the Division is "to increase the efficiency of American libraries by providing current information concerning Government activities. It shall collect and organize information regarding printed matter issued by the Federal Government, and shall make available to the libraries of the United States the sources of such information. It shall provide digests of this material, with suggestions as to its use, in order that such material may be made quickly available to the users of libraries."

H. R. 3923.

Introduced by Mr. Reed, December 17, 1923. "To create a Department of Education, to authorize appropriations for the conduct of said department, to authorize the appropriation of money to encourage the states in the promotion and support of education, and for other purposes."

This bill is identical with S. 1337 above and with the Sterling-Towner bill of last session.

H. R. 4121.

Introduced by Mr. Johnson, January 22, 1924. "To extend the provisions of certain laws to the Territory of Hawaii."

This bill extends the cooperation of the Federal Government with the states in the building of roads, the Federal Farm Loan Act, the Maternity Act, the Promotion of Vocational Education Act, and the Promotion of Vocational Rehabilitation Act, to the Territory of Hawaii. It

authorizes appropriations of \$13,000 annually for carrying out the Maternity Act and \$30,000 annually for carrying out the Vocational Education Act and \$5,000 annually for carrying out the Vocational Rehabilitation Act in Hawaii.

H. R. 6294.

Introduced by Mr. Davila, January 28, 1924. "To extend the provisions of certain laws to Porto Rico."

This bill extends to Porto Rico the cooperation of the Federal Government in the same laws that are extended to Hawaii in H. R. 4121. It authorizes no appropriations for this purpose.

H. R. 4800.

Introduced by Mr. Bacon, January 7, 1924. "To provide for the promotion of physical education in the United States through cooperation with the states in the preparation and payment of supervisors and teachers of physical education, to appropriate money and regulate its expenditure, and for other purposes."

This bill provides that the Secretary of the Interior, through the Bureau of Education, shall cooperate with the states in the universal extension of the opportunities of physical education to the youth of the nation. It authorizes an appropriation of \$5,000,000 annually to be distributed to the states on the 50-50 principle. It creates a Division of Physical Education in the Bureau of Education and authorizes an appropriation of \$200,000 to maintain it.

H. R. 5478.

Introduced by Mr. Dallinger, January 15, 1924. "To amend sections 1, 3, and 6 of an Act entitled 'An Act to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.'"

This bill authorizes an annual appropriation of \$1,000,000 for a period of four years to enable the Federal Board for Vocational Education to continue its present cooperation with the states in the maintenance of vocational rehabilitation

of industrial or disabled persons. The state is required to match the federal funds dollar for dollar and to submit annually to the Federal Board for approval a plan showing "(a) the kinds of vocational rehabilitation and schemes of placement for which it is proposed the appropriation shall be used; (b) the plan of administration and supervision; (c) courses of study; (d) methods of instruction; (e) qualification of teachers, supervisors, directors, and other necessary administrative officers or employees; (f) plans for the training of teachers, supervisors, and directors." In order to secure these benefits, the states must accept the provisions of the Act and "empower and direct the board designated or created as the State Board for Vocational Education to cooperate as herein provided with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the provisions of this Act."

For the purpose of this Act the term "disabled persons" "shall be construed to mean any person who by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation; the term 'rehabilitation' shall be construed to mean the rendering of a person disabled fit to engage in a remunerative occupation."

The Federal Board for Vocational Education is authorized to make and establish such rules and regulations as may be necessary or appropriate to carry into effect the provisions of this Act, and is given power to withhold the allotments of moneys to any state whenever it shall be determined that moneys allotted are not expended for the purposes and conditions of this Act. The Board is given in addition an appropriation of \$75,000 annually for a period of four years for the purpose of making studies, investigations, and reports regarding vocational rehabilitation or disabled persons and is authorized and empowered to receive such gifts and donations from either public or private sources as may be offered unconditionally.

This bill was reported out of committee on February 7, 1924, the majority report urging its early passage and a minority report objecting to the cooperation of the states on the 50-50 principle as unconstitutional.

H. R. 5795.

Introduced by Mr. Dallinger, January 19, 1924. "To establish a Department of Education and Welfare."

This bill provides for the creation of a Department of Education and Welfare with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. The Department consists of four main divisions, namely: (1) education; (2) public health; (3) social service; (4) veterans service. Each division shall be under an Assistant Secretary of Education and Welfare. That the office of Commissioner of Education in the Department of the Interior; the office of the Surgeon General in the Treasury Department; the offices of the chief, assistant chief, and private secretary to the chief of the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor; the office of the Director of the Veterans' Bureau; the Federal Board for Vocational Education; the Board of Managers of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, and the Board of Commissioners of the Soldiers' Home are abolished. That the bureau called the Office of Education and the Bureau of Pensions in the Department of the Interior, the Public Health Service in the Treasury Department, the Children's Bureau and the bureau known as the Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor, the Freeman's Hospital, and the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers are transferred to the Department of Education and Welfare. In addition supervision of the Soldiers' Homes and of the Smithsonian Institution are transferred to this Department, and the President is authorized to transfer any other Bureau, Board or Commission in the Federal Government which the President finds will be better administered in this Department. There is appropriated \$10,000 to carry out the provisions of this act up to June 30, 1924.

H. R. 6582.

Introduced by Mr. Dallinger, February 2, 1924. "To provide for the better definition and extension of the purpose and duties of the Bureau of Education, and for other purposes."

This bill directs that the Bureau of Education, in addition to the duties now defined in Section 516 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, shall conduct studies and investigations in the following fields: (1) illiteracy; (2) immigrant education; (3) public school education, including administrative organization, construction of school buildings, cost of public education and organization and arrangement of school curricula; (4) vocational education; (5) physical education, including health education, recreation, and sanitation; (6) preparation and supply of competent teachers for the public schools; (7) higher education, and such other educational matters and subjects as in the judgment of the Commissioner of Education may require attention and study. It provides for the transfer of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to the Bureau of Education, authorizes an appropriation of \$500,000 annually for the proper conduct of the investigations specified above, frees the Commissioner of Education from Civil Service requirements in making short-time appointments of experts to assist in these investigations, creates a Federal Council on Education in the Bureau consisting of representatives from all the other Executive Departments, and creates a National Council on Education composed of 15 representative citizens selected by the Commissioner of Education.

H. R. 7450.

Introduced by Mr. Bacon, on March 1, 1924. "To provide for the promotion of physical education in the United States through cooperation with the states in the preparation and payment of supervisors and teachers of physical education, and for other purposes."

This bill is identical with H. R. 4800 except that it omits the authorization for appropriations. It is thus identical with S. 2713, introduced by Mr. Capper, March 3, 1924.

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Officers and Members of the American Council on Education

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The Annual Meeting

THE SEVENTH Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education was held at the Cosmos Club, Washington, D. C., Friday and Saturday, May 2 and 3, 1924. There were in attendance more than 200 delegates and guests.

Reports were presented from the officers and standing committees outlining the work of the Council for the past year. These reports are printed in the following pages, and show the work that has been accomplished.

The report of the Executive Committee contained two recommendations requiring action; namely, the approval of the budget for the year 1924-25, and the approval of a change in the Constitution as announced in the call to the meeting, by which only two of the 6 elected members of the Executive Committee shall be elected at each meeting and each shall serve for a period of three years. Both of these recommendations were approved by the Council. The budget appears on page 136.

It will be noted that the budget is drawn up under two heads; namely, the regular work of the Council, and the work in international relations. This results from the merger between the American University Union in Europe and the Council, and the financing of the work in international relations by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, as described in the report of the Executive Committee. The total estimated resources of the Council for the coming year for administration and investigation amount to \$185,281.28.

Besides the reports of the Council's own officers and committees, papers were presented by representatives of other organizations on subjects which were closely allied to the work of the Council. President William B. Owen, Chairman of the National Education Association Commis-

sion on the American School Program, described the appointment of that Commission and outlined its work. While many studies have been made of individual subjects in the curriculum or of individual groups of schools, no survey has yet been made which endeavors to relate the various parts to one another, to trace lines of consistent progress through the whole. This Commission has been appointed to make this over-all survey.

The work of this Commission on the American School Program has been delayed for lack of funds. The Association appropriated \$1,000 to enable the Commission to begin work, but this sum will not become available until certain other investigations now authorized are completed. The Commission hopes to secure financial support to the extent of \$12,000 or \$15,000 a year to expedite the work. With such support there could be accomplished in four or five years as much as would be done in three times the time without additional funds. It is a significant fact that the American School system has developed without any central control and that the teachers themselves are now interested in bringing about a greater coherence and better relationships between the various parts.

Brig. Gen. H. A. Drum, Assistant Chief of Staff in Charge of Training in the Army, outlined the essential features of the new National Defense Act and explained the War Department's policy in applying that act to the R. O. T. C. He showed how military operations in France demonstrated that the fundamental factor in national defense is manhood. Therefore all military training seeks not only to develop technical proficiency but lays great emphasis on strengthening character and on building up firm convictions of the righteousness of the American ideal. In accordance with this policy the R. O. T. C. instruction in colleges may fairly be considered intensified citizenship training, as it consciously seeks to clarify and strengthen the American ideal and to inculcate loyalty, self-discipline, responsibility and those other moral virtues that make American manhood supreme.

Following the report of the Committee on Federal Legislation, a committee was appointed to wait upon the conferees of the Senate and House, who were considering the final form of the Immigration Bill, to urge upon them the necessity for making both bona fide students and the wives and children of visiting professors exempt from the quota restrictions of the act. The Chair appointed Messrs. MacCracken, Duggan and Mann as members of this committee. Before the meeting closed the committee reported that they had visited the conferees and were assured that the desired exemptions would be included in the final form of the act.

As a further consequence of the Report of the Committee on Federal Legislation the following resolution was introduced:

Resolved: That the American Council on Education favors the creation of an effective central office of education that shall coordinate the educational activities of the Federal Government and that shall be adequately equipped to gather information, make and publish studies in all fields of education and to make official surveys of all branches of public education, and consequently exercise leadership in educational matters in this country.

That, if possible, this office be an executive department of the Government with a Secretary of Education holding a place in the Cabinet at its head.

After discussion this resolution was ordered mimeographed for distribution among the members of the Council and made the special order of business at the business meeting Saturday morning. It was duly considered the following day and after considerable discussion the following resolution was unanimously passed:

Resolved: That the Committee on Federal Legislation be instructed to take an immediate referendum on the questions involved in the bills for the creation of a new or an expanded federal office for education and to formulate the results of that referendum and report to the Executive Committee of the Council.

The afternoon session was devoted to consideration of the problem of international educational relations. Reports were presented from the standing committees of the Council and from the Institute of International Education, as

printed elsewhere in this number of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD. In addition the work of several other important agencies in this field was presented for the information of the Council.

Mr. Edward C. Jenkins, Director of the International Education work of the Y. M. C. A., explained how their efforts to help foreign students had begun in 1911. This organization now maintains a central office in New York to supply necessary information for foreign students who are coming to the United States. They also maintain offices at San Francisco and New Orleans where personal attention is given in assisting foreign students to get suitably located in universities and colleges.

As this work has developed it has become evident that there is serious need for centers of information in the chief capitals of the world, where students who are planning to study abroad can receive reliable information about living conditions and educational opportunities in leading foreign countries. To supply this demand he urged upon the Council the necessity of establishing such personal agents in the leading capitals of the world. The Y. M. C. A. is prepared to assist financially in this undertaking and desires the assistance of the American Council on Education in discovering and appointing competent educational advisers in foreign cities. The problem is a double one, since the students require help not only in finding suitable educational advantages but also in adjusting themselves with the least possible friction to the social and business conditions in foreign countries.

Mr. C. D. Snow, Manager of the Foreign Commerce Department of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, outlined a plan that was developing there for an international exchange of students of commerce. It is an interesting fact that business men are becoming more and more interested in foreign relations and are considering establishing means for exchange of students of commerce between the United States and other foreign nations. Business recognizes the

need of men trained in international affairs. After investigating the question, the Committee of the U. S. Chamber has concluded that the problem is not so much one of raising funds as it is one of organizing facilities for study and giving publicity to them. In the arts and sciences greater progress has been made in the organization of international student exchange than in commercial and business lines.

Beside organization for exchange of students there is needed in American universities courses of instruction intended primarily for foreigners. Business men are ready to cooperate with educational institutions in developing these courses. Chambers of Commerce here and abroad are prepared to cooperate in developing the entire field. The initiative for such developments should come from the educators. If the schools develop suitable courses of instruction, the business interests will make possible the securing of practical contacts with business organizations everywhere. Since business offers a wide field for misunderstanding between nations, it is a subject which should receive much attention in developing international relations with a view to permanent peace.

The Honorable J. J. Tigert, U. S. Commissioner of Education, discussed the Highway Education Board and its plan for bringing South American engineering students to America. This board has been active in promoting in this country all forms of education connected with highways and highway transportation. This year it is entering the international field by bringing a group of engineers and public men from the Central American Republics to this country to study our methods of building roads and controlling transportation. This group of about 30 visitors will spend the entire month of June traveling under the direction of the Highway Board in order that, by a study of our experiences in road building, they may be able the better to develop the highway systems of their own countries.

It is the plan of the Highway Education Board to offer scholarships for carefully selected students of engineering

from South American countries to come to this country and study in our engineering schools. Further development of this plan will depend on the results secured from the present visit of the Central American delegates.

Dr. Glen L. Swiggett described the organization and work of the National Council on Foreign Service Training. This Council is composed of 15 representatives of business, education and public service. Its purpose is to encourage the development in American schools and colleges of adequate courses of instruction to train men and women for commercial and government service abroad. It was organized in 1915 and has held a number of conferences in various sections of the country. Outlines of courses of study have been prepared and stimulation has been given to many schools and colleges to introduce instruction in this field. Reports of its work have been published by the Bureau of Education and have been effective in arousing interest in this subject and in coordinating the activities of numerous agencies interested in this field.

The session Saturday morning was devoted to a consideration of the problem of standards. The Committee on Standards presented its final recommendations with regard to standards of junior colleges and teacher training institutions as printed in this issue of the RECORD. This report was considered, section by section, adopted, and ordered printed as the report of the American Council on this subject.

The Committee on Standards also recommended the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved: That the Committee on Standards recommends to the American Council on Education that the three reports on the standards of colleges, junior colleges and teacher training institutions be issued as a special pamphlet and widely distributed to a special list to be furnished by this Committee.

Resolved: That the Committee on Standards suggests for the consideration of the American Council on Education the expansion of the present functions of the Committee to include a continuing inquiry regarding the results arising from the progressive adoption and enforcement of the standards approved by the Council.

Resolved: That the Committee on Standards recommends to the

American Council on Education that it open negotiations with agencies working in the field of objective educational measurements looking toward a coordination of effort in this field.

After discussion the first and third of these resolutions were unanimously passed as they stand. The second was amended to read as follows:

Resolved: That the Committee on Standards suggests for the consideration of the American Council on Education the expansion of the present functions of the Committee to include a continuing inquiry regarding the results arising from the progressive adoption and enforcement of the standards approved by the Council, particularly in relation to the purposes, aims and content of the curricula of teacher-training institutions.

The Committee on Standards also reported that it had appointed a sub-committee to study special methods of measuring achievement for the purpose of establishing the capacity of students as a basis for the award of credits toward admissions, degrees and certificates.

During the discussion of the report of the Committee on Standards the question was raised as to what other organizations are working in this field. In reply it was pointed out that the Division of Educational Relations of the National Research Council, in connection with its study of the gifted student, has found it necessary to include in its investigations the whole question of selection and promotion of college students by means of all forms of tests, examinations and interviews. The National Personnel Federation, composed of some 15 national organizations, is engaged in efforts to coordinate the activities of its members on this subject of personnel methods. The National Research Council also has a Committee on College Entrance Tests. The National Association for Vocational Guidance is devoting its main energies to study of this same problem in secondary schools and industries. Within the Federal Government the Civil Service Commission, the Departments of War and Navy, the Veterans Bureau and others are also experimenting in this same field. The National Board on Personnel Classification is endeavoring to coordinate the activities of 7

national organizations dealing with the practical problem of selection and placement of men in public service, industry and education. The Bureau of Personnel Administration of the Institute for Government Research is conducting researches on the practical phases of personnel administration. Obviously the opportunity for coordination is large.

Dr. L. L. Thurstone briefly described the work of the National Research Council's Committee on College Entrance Tests in its efforts to determine how far the results of objective tests are confirmed by subsequent performance in college. He also pointed out the need of monographs describing in a practical way the procedures by which scientific work in vocational guidance may be made immediately useful. There should also be established a center for comparative study of results achieved in different institutions. Such a center could establish among a number of colleges cooperative experiments that would be of scientific value because of the variety of conditions under which they are made and would also serve to educate the colleges in the proper use of objective tests. There is also great need for a study of personality traits and for the development of methods of measuring them in a practical manner.

Dr. Andrew T. Wylie, psychologist in charge of army experiments with tests for selection, assignment and measurement of proficiency, described the work he is doing at Camp Vail, New Jersey. The practical results of using these tests have been so striking that they are rapidly coming into general use throughout the Army for selecting men for training and for measuring their progress and proficiency.

The list of officers elected for the year 1924-25 is given on page 209. Further details of the major activities of the Council are contained in the reports printed in the following pages.

Appointment of the Assistant Director

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON, Professor of English at the University of Chicago, has been appointed Assistant Director of the American Council on Education to develop the work of the Council in the field of international educational relations. In cooperation with the Institute of International Education, the Committee on the American University Union, and numerous other agencies operating in this field, he will devote his entire time to formulation of effective foreign policies and simplification of administrative machinery for their realization. He will take up this new work in September.

Mr. Robertson is a graduate of the University of Chicago in the Class of 1902. He has been a member of the Department of English there ever since. In addition he served as Secretary to the President for fourteen years, as Editor of the *University Record* for five years, as Secretary of the Association of American Universities for five years, and as Dean of the College of Arts, Literature and Science for three years.

These long and varied experiences in university teaching and administrative work, together with extensive foreign travel, have given him an understanding of educational problems and of the personnel involved which render him peculiarly well qualified to develop well-coordinated plans of action in international education. His philosophy of education is sound, his vision of the possibilities of international educational relations is large, and his success in bringing ideals to pass has been amply demonstrated. The Council is most fortunate in securing his services for this important new work.

Report of the Executive Committee

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE begs to submit the following report.

The four regular meetings were held during the year on September 22, 1923, in Washington, on January 9, 1924, in New York, on February 27, 1924, in New York, and on May 1, 1924, in Washington.

In accordance with the vote of the last meeting, the Executive Committee has been in conference with the co-operating agencies and the foundations concerning the matter of international education. As a result the following arrangements have been made:

The Trustees of the American University Union in Europe have disbanded as an organization and have turned over their work to a standing committee of the American Council on Education known as the Committee on the American University Union. Twenty-one of the members of this committee were former trustees of the Union. The Council's standing Committee on International Educational Relations has been merged in this new committee, which is charged with the administration and maintenance of the Paris and London headquarters of the Union and with the further development of international relations. The War Memorial Endowment Fund of the Union has been placed under the guardianship of a special set of three trustees, who are entirely independent of the Council.

The Institute of International Education has become a constituent member of the American Council. Its sixteen trustees have been organized into four groups to serve respectively one-year, two-year, three-year and four-year terms. Prior to the annual meeting at which one of these groups goes out of office, the American Council will call for nominations from the institutional members of the Council and will submit to the Trustees of the Institute a list of

eight names selected by the Council's members. The Trustees of the Institute will select four from this list of eight. By this process in the course of four years trustees of the Institute will consist entirely of men nominated by the Council.

For financial support of the foregoing agencies for international education, the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial has agreed to match the income of the Council dollar for dollar up to \$35,000 per year for five years, this entire sum to be expended for international work. The Council has set aside \$25,000 of this fund for use of the Committee on the American University Union for maintenance of the Paris and London headquarters. Whatever sum is available over and above \$25,000 is to be expended by the Council for further development of international educational relations. The Union agrees to make no appeals to American educational institutions for funds, but to leave it to the Council to conduct all negotiations with colleges and universities for the support of the joint enterprise. The Union reserves the right to solicit subscriptions from individuals for support of its work and for its War Memorial Endowment Fund.

A grant of \$35,000 per year for five years, together with the rent of the office space in New York, has been made by the Carnegie Corporation for support of the Institute of International Education. Five thousand dollars of this sum is to be used for the international work of the American Association of University Women.

From the foregoing brief statement of terms of consolidation, it appears that the organization for international educational work has been much simplified and its support placed on a sound basis, provided the colleges and universities of the country continue to support the Council as consistently as they have during the past six years.

Immediately following the merger of the Council and the Union, a campaign was started to enlarge the membership of the Council. A letter has been sent to every one of the 364 accredited institutions inviting it either to remain or

become an institutional member of the Council and pointing out that its dues will be doubled because of the arrangement just mentioned with the Rockefeller Memorial. Up to the date of this meeting 111 institutions have replied to this invitation. Of these 64 have accepted and promised continued support of the Council; 23 more have referred the matter to their governing boards; 24 have declined, mainly on grounds of financial stringency. Sixteen new institutional members are as follows:

DELAWARE:	NEW YORK:
University of Delaware	College of the City of New York
ILLINOIS:	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
Loyola University	PENNSYLVANIA:
INDIANA:	University of Pittsburgh
Earlham College	St. Vincent College
LOUISIANA:	SOUTH CAROLINA:
Louisiana State University	University of South Carolina
MASSACHUSETTS:	SOUTH DAKOTA:
Worcester Polytechnic Institute	University of South Dakota
MICHIGAN:	UTAH:
Michigan College of Mines	Utah Agricultural College
NEW JERSEY:	VIRGINIA:
Rutgers College	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
	Washington and Lee University

The Executive Committee has considered at length the question of the scale of dues of the institutional members. Prior to the merger of the Union and the Council there were 108 institutions paying \$100, 28 paying from \$200 to \$300, and 14 paying \$500. The institutions that were members of the Union paid either \$100 or \$250 or \$500. Your committee has not yet been able to work out a satisfactory formula that will adjust the dues in such manner as to encourage the largest number of institutions to become members, to reduce the fees to a minimum, and yet to yield a sufficient income to maintain the Council's office. The Committee is still considering the problem and will be glad of specific suggestions from any association or institution on this very vital matter.

In considering this problem of support, your committee believes that it is essential for the permanent success of the Council that the educational institutions should support and control the office of the Council in Washington. This office is then in a position to receive grants for all kinds of research and national and international enterprises with the assurance that such money shall be spent entirely under the control and supervision of the institutions themselves. It is highly important that the overhead expenses of the Washington office be borne by the constituent and institutional members so that the control of the central office remain permanently in their hands.

The work of the Personnel Division has developed steadily. At present 16,000 college teachers are enrolled. All of the institutions on the accredited list have been brought into the undertaking. Encouragement has been given to administrative officers to inspect the files and a mail service has been established whereby abstracts of the registration blanks of suitable candidates will be sent by mail upon receipt of requests from universities giving specifications of vacant positions. This service is rendered free to institutional members of the Council, but on account of the cost of abstracting records, a charge to non-member institutions of \$10 per position has been authorized by your committee. Cooperative relations have been established with practically all college appointment offices. These call upon the Council for candidates for vacancies which they cannot fill and notify us of candidates for whom suitable positions do not materialize. A register has just been made of students who expect to graduate or take higher degrees this summer and desire to secure teaching positions.

The new Committee on Standards has been completely organized. Every constituent member of the Council and every other accrediting agency of importance in the country is now represented on this committee by one delegate. Since it is now the only comprehensive committee in this field, it is in a position to render real service in the solution of this

ever-present and vexing problem of uniform standards. The Saturday morning session of this meeting is devoted to a discussion of this live topic.

The Executive Committee has agreed to sponsor four new enterprises as follows:

At the request of the General Education Board, an advisory committee was organized and a preliminary plan drawn for a comprehensive study of the teaching of English in America. This plan, with a budget calling for \$120,000 for the next two years, has been presented to the Board and will be considered at its meeting on May 22.

At the request of the Carnegie Corporation, the Executive Committee has appointed a standing committee to take charge of a study of the teaching of modern foreign languages in the United States. The Corporation has granted to the Council \$15,000 to finance this committee to September 1, 1924, and is planning for an annual grant thereafter of \$60,000 per year for the next three years to complete the study. Prof. R. H. Fife of Columbia has been designated chairman of this committee and Director of this study. Preliminary work has already been undertaken and the inquiry will actively start on return of Professor Fife from his sojourn in Europe.

A committee of men interested in developing international educational relations was organized by Mr. Marcus M. Marks in New York. Your committee has accepted the invitation of this group to administer and operate foreign exchange scholarships and a system of exchange of undergraduate students with foreign countries provided the group will finance the undertaking. A fund of \$10,000 was subscribed for the use of the Council in a preliminary study of the project. Part of this was spent by the Council to defray the expenses of President Aydelotte of Swarthmore in securing a report on the details of possible arrangements for such a system with British universities. Full details of this enterprise will be presented later on the program.

The Council has accepted the invitation of the National

Board on Personnel Classification to act as sponsor for their project to secure standard terminology and job specifications in all types of occupations. Funds for this work have not yet been secured but efforts are being made to get them.

The Committee submits herewith the budget recommended for the fiscal year 1924-25. The following resolutions are also submitted with the recommendation that they be adopted:

Resolved, that the American Council on Education hereby approves the amendment to the Constitution, a notice of which was given on the tentative program of this meeting, namely, that in Section 6 of the Constitution the words "two at each annual meeting to serve for a three-year term" be added to the sentence, "The remaining six members shall be elected by the Council," so that it will read "The remaining six members shall be elected by the Council, two at each annual meeting to serve for a three-year term."

Resolved, That the Nominating Committee be instructed to arrange the nominations for the six members of the Executive Committee to be elected at this meeting in three groups of two each, one for one year, one for two years, and one for three years, in order to put the foregoing amendment to the constitution into operation.

Resolved, That the merger with the American University Union in Europe and the relations with the Institute of International Education be and hereby are ratified by the American Council on Education.

Resolved, That the budget submitted by the Executive Committee for the fiscal year 1924-25 be approved.

C. J. TILDEN,
Secretary.

Director's Budget, 1924-25

ESTIMATED RESOURCES

Membership dues 1924-25, \$26,670, of which \$4,230 have been paid. Balance due	\$22,440.00
Balance due on back dues	3,110.00
Services for investigations	2,500.00
	<hr/>
	\$28,050.00
Bank balance April 30, 1924,	8,231.28
	<hr/>

Estimated resources for 1924-25..... \$36,281.28

Estimated expenses *Council Internat'l Ltd.*

Rent	\$2,800	\$1,000
Salary of director.....	9,000	6,000
Salary of assistants.....	4,400	2,000
Administrative traveling ex- penses	2,500	2,000
Stationery, printing and supplies	1,000	1,000
Telephone and telegrams	300	300
Postage	300	200
Furniture and appliances	300	300
EDUCATIONAL RECORD	2,000	...
General expense	500	250
Franco-American Com.	1,000
Personnel Division	10,000	...
American University Union....	...	25,000

\$33,100 \$39,050

Total estimated expenses for Council..... \$33,100.00

Probable surplus

\$3,181.28

SPECIAL GRANTS

Educational Finance Inquiry	\$35,000.00
International Educational Relations	35,000.00
Foreign Language Study	70,000.00
Foreign Travel and Study	9,000.00

Total estimated resources \$185,281.28

Report of the Director

THE COUNCIL is six years old. It has now found itself and is getting results. The past year has witnessed the consolidation of its standards committee, the rapid growth of its personnel division, the completion of its educational finance inquiry, the increase of its responsibilities for international relations, the doubling of its income, and the reception of a liberal grant for a study of modern foreign language teaching in America.

All this indicates a vigorous constitution and sturdy growth. All this brings nearer to objective realization the ideals of national cooperation for which the Council was founded. Its functions are becoming clearer, the service it can render is more obvious, and its lines of action are more sharply defined. What are the next steps and how shall we take them?

For convenience of discussion, the activities of the Council, as reported by the standing committees, may be classified under five main headings; namely, standards, personnel, national relations, international relations, and research. Strictly speaking, these are not independent activities. They are interdependent and so interwoven that progress in one requires progress in all. Coordination is essential to maximum achievement.

For example, standards are necessary to any rational classification of institutions. They are no less fundamental to the successful solution of faculty and student personnel problems. National and international migration of students results in large wastes of time and energy without properly defined and calibrated standards. Every educational research is at bottom a problem of appraising, comparing and defining standards.

Building on this recognition of the basic interdependence of the several activities of the Council, it is possible

to guide the work of each committee so that it will contribute most fully to the labors of all. Thus the standards committee will find that if, in its efforts to bring order out of chaos in classifying institutions, it also considers the standards of achievement needed for scientific personnel work, a better classification of institutions will evolve, the personnel work will be strengthened, and it will soon be possible to conduct international exchanges of students with vastly less dissipation of student energy.

The case is similar with the personnel division. Its energies have been absorbed so far in making a register of college teachers. This register has an immediate practical value as an instrument for finding men to fill faculty vacancies. Its potential value in helping men and women to find themselves and the positions in which they can do their best work will gradually be realized as the institutions use it more and more. The basic facts it contains concerning the personnel of higher education may some day be organized to reveal the actual conditions of scholarship in America.

But the personnel division cannot stop with the mere gathering of data about professors. The colleges need cooperative study of the personnel methods of handling students. There is as yet no central agency for comparison of the relative effectiveness of the many systems on trial in this field. The colleges need a news service that will keep all informed of what each is doing. They need a headquarters to which they can apply for assistance in devising experiments, in securing personnel blanks and equipment and in interpreting results.

Such a development of the personnel division would be a real service to higher education. It requires close cooperation with the committee on standards, and with all the personnel activities in industry and government. There are indications that such a central agency for personnel research may be established on an independent foundation. This will be fine for the science of personnel administra-

tion, but educational progress will be more steady and secure when the colleges also do this work themselves.

In the field of national relations there are such questions as training for citizenship, the relation of government to education in a republic, and the organization of a national university. Here, again, successful solutions involve not only standards and personnel methods but also cooperation of all educational institutions. In dealing with such national problems as these an agency that is established, controlled and supported by the colleges and universities themselves is in a peculiarly strategic position. It has the confidence of the schools because they own it. If it does good work, it wins the confidence that brings grants to conduct special investigations and support cooperative enterprises. That the Council has won this latter form of confidence is indicated by the funds that have been given it in the past three years for such purposes.

The merger with the American University Union in Europe has opened the way for development of international relations looking toward ultimate world peace. Here, again, success depends on the success of the Council's national activities. For our influence in foreign affairs depends primarily on how well we put our own house in order. If our standards are well defined and effective, if our personnel methods yield demonstrably good results, if we develop upstanding citizens and sound relations between government and education, other nations will listen. Actions speak louder than words.

There are many organizations working in the international field. There is widespread interest in it. One of the proposals frequently heard is that an "international university" should be established. A recent report of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation explains that this term cannot mean a single institution—a super-university. Rather it means a federation of universities, each of which emphasizes in its teaching some one subject of international interest, and is thus a rallying

point for students interested in that subject the world over.

A practical example of what is meant by a university specializing on international education in a given field is found in the recently established International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia. Here education is the special subject. Students from all parts of the world go there to study American education. They also bring with them a knowledge of education in their own countries so that there is gathered together an international group for comparative study of education systems. Special courses are arranged and trips of inspection are made in this country. A group of American students is also taken abroad to study at first hand foreign systems.

It seems a perfectly feasible plan for any university to develop courses for international study in some particular field in a manner similar to that now in operation at Columbia for education. To make such courses of maximum benefit in developing international relations, it is necessary to have some central agency which gathers and disseminates information on the entire range of instruction. Work of this sort is already being done for the natural sciences by the National Research Council. The American Council on Education has already taken preliminary steps looking toward a similar organization with regard to humanistic studies in the establishment of the University Center for Research. Further development of the plan requires suitable coordination of effort between these two councils and the development of cooperative relations with the national associations representing the several special lines of work and with the universities in which special attention is paid to these subjects.

Such a voluntary and loosely organized federation of institutions interested in higher education might ultimately become a national university. Such an institution would not be a super-university located all in one place with a permanent faculty devoted exclusively to graduate work. Rather every institution where graduate work was carried on would be an outpost of such an institution and together

they would support a central council in Washington, the members of which would be elected for periods of years by the constituent institutions.

A national university organized in this way could render services of enormous value to the nation. Last fall the University Center for Research gathered together a long list of problems, the solution of which is of importance to national development. If every individual university would select for study such problems as it is peculiarly qualified to study, there would rapidly collect a mass of reliable information which would be of utmost importance to Congress, to the Executive Departments of the Federal Government, and to state governments in solving their national and international problems.

The success of such an enterprise depends on the hearty cooperation of every individual college and university in the country. In order that the results of such work truly represent American conditions and the American point of view, every type of institution in every section of the country must contribute its strength and its ideas to the composite result. The various national councils already organized in Washington can proceed toward the gradual development of such coordinated effort provided they have the united support of all local institutions. It is hoped that the American colleges and universities will catch this vision and lend their support to this enterprise. A successful development of such national relations in the field of higher education would create a working model that would be of great significance in the development of international educational relations.

To summarize: From the foregoing it appears that as the next steps in its development the American Council on Education might well:

1. Extend the work of the Committee on Standards in the direction of study and development of standards of achievement to supplement the present standards of time.
2. Expand the work of the Personnel Division to include a comparative study of student personnel methods.

3. Secure support for the Committee on Federal Legislation to enable it to make intensive studies of the relations between education and government in this Republic.

4. Continue to develop cooperative relations with the National Research Council and all other agencies dealing with higher education in a national way with the ultimate objective of creating a National University in the sense defined above.

5. In cooperation with the Institute of International Education strengthen the work in international educational relations by developing the Union headquarters in Paris and London as educational embassies and by establishing similar headquarters in other important foreign countries, through which exchange of students and professors can be successfully operated.

6. Secure as many special grants as possible for inquiries that bear on any of the above problems and for the encouragement of student exchanges by means of scholarships, fellowships, and other subsidies.

The record of this Council during the past six years shows that all of these enterprises may be realized practically, provided the institutions that make up the constituent and institutional membership give the central office of the Council adequate moral and financial support. There are about 366 colleges and universities eligible for membership. The conditions of membership should be so devised that all of these can see their way clear to join, not merely because of the increased financial support; but more particularly because the results of the Council's work will be truly representative in proportion as it has the active support of all institutions. If the income contributed by the institutions for the maintenance of the central office of the Council were \$35,000 a year, active work on all the above mentioned projects could proceed and adequate funds for pushing many of them on a large scale could be secured over and above the funds supplied by the institutions themselves. It is, however, very essential that the expenses of the central office be met by the institutions themselves, so that there can be no doubt that the American Council on Education is the property of the American institutions of higher education and that it is entirely under their supervision and control.

C. R. MANN.

Treasurer's Report

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 2, 1924.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION,

26 Jackson Place,

Washington, D. C.

GENTLEMEN :

I herewith submit the three statements of the American Audit Company, the first being an audit of the general funds of your organization ; the second, an audit of the Educational Finance Inquiry Fund, both for the year commencing May 1, 1923, to April 30, 1924, and, third, an audit of the International Education Fund for the period of March 10, 1924, to April 30, 1924.

I desire to submit these papers as my Annual Report as your treasurer for the past year.

Very truly yours,

CORCORAN THOM,

Treasurer, American Council on Education.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From May 1, 1923, to April 30, 1924

RECEIPTS

Constituent Members.....	\$1,500.00	
Associate Members.....	120.00	
Institutional Members.....	23,650.00	
	<hr/>	\$25,270.00
Subscriptions to EDUCATIONAL RECORD and extra copies		167.48
Refunds of long distance telephone charges.....		14.17
Contributions:		
General Education Board for English		
Study Fund	\$500.00	
National Conference Committee on Stand-		
ards.....	92.31	
Committee on Foreign Travel and Study	1,000.00	
	<hr/>	1,592.31
Sale of Mimeograph		5.00
Interest on Bank Deposit.....		194.35
Services Division of Personnel.....		55.00
		<hr/>
		\$27,298.31
Cash on Hand May 1, 1923.....		11,701.06
		<hr/>
		\$38,999.37

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries:

Director.....	\$9,000.00	
Assistants.....	5,800.08	
		<hr/>
		\$14,800.08

Rent	1,333.32
Stationery, Printing and Supplies.....	910.70
Postage	280.36
Telephone and Telegrams.....	234.18
General Expenses	634.08
Traveling Expenses of Director.....	1,256.13

Committees:

Executive.....	\$603.02	
Franco-American Exchange of Scholarships	366.60	
College Standards.....	300.16	
Foreign Travel and Study.....	1,000.00	
Study of Teaching of English.....	437.54	
Other Committees.....	23.16	
		<hr/>
		2,730.48

Publication Expenses EDUCATIONAL RECORD.....	2,126.85
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Furniture and Fixtures	235.15
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Division of College and University Personnel:

Furniture and Fixtures.....	\$197.25	
General Expense.....	13.50	
Postage.....	225.00	
Rent.....	666.72	
Salaries.....	3,697.57	
Stationery, Supplies and Printing.....	1,341.11	
Telephone and Telegrams.....	45.88	
Traveling Expenses.....	39.73	
		<hr/>
		6,226.76

\$30,768.09

Cash on Hand April 30, 1924.....	8,231.28
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\$38,999.37

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE INQUIRY FUND

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From May 1, 1923, to April 30, 1924

RECEIPTS

Carnegie Corporation	\$12,500.00
Commonwealth Fund	12,500.00
General Education Fund	18,750.00
Interest on Bank Deposits	367.73
	<hr/>
	\$44,117.73
Cash on Hand May 1, 1923.....	23,071.44
	<hr/>
	\$67,189.17

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries:

Investigating Commission Staff and Consultants.....	\$19,751.00
Clerical and Field.....	16,330.75
	<hr/>
	\$36,081.75
Printing and Publications.....	11,573.94
Supplies	951.70
Insurance and Equipment.....	97.48
Traveling Expenses.....	3,253.33
Postage, Telephone, Telegrams, etc.....	234.01
	<hr/>
	\$52,192.21
Cash on hand April 30, 1924.....	14,996.96
	<hr/>
	\$67,189.17

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FUND

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

From March 10, 1924, to April 30, 1924

RECEIPTS

Contribution from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Fund.....	\$5,470.00
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DISBURSEMENTS

Paris Office:		
Salaries.....	\$676.66	
Office Expenses.....	1,005.00	
Exchange.....	3.50	
		1,685.16
New York Office:		
Salaries.....	\$120.00	
Office Expenses.....	50.00	
		170.00
London Office:		
Salaries.....	\$500.00	
Office Expenses.....	900.00	
Exchange.....	2.75	
		1,402.75
		<hr/>
		\$3,257.91
Cash on Hand April 30, 1924.....		2,212.09
		<hr/>
		\$5,470.00

Report of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission

THE investigations undertaken by the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission have been completed and are now being published. The results of the inquiry will be issued in thirteen volumes, approximately 2,300 pages in all. The following have already come from the press and can be had from the publishers, The Macmillan Company:

- Volume I, The Financing of Education in the State of New York.
- Volume II, Elementary School Costs in the State of New York.
- Volume III, The Cost and Support of Secondary Education in the State of New York.
- Volume V, The Fiscal Administration of City School Systems.
- Volume VI, The Financial Statistics of Public Education in the United States, 1910-1920.

It is confidently expected that the following volumes, all but two of which are now at press, will be issued before October 1, 1924:

- Volume IV, Bibliography on Educational Finance.
- Volume VII, The Cost of Education in California.
- Volume VIII, The Financing of Education in Iowa.
- Volume IX, The Financing of Public Schools in the State of Illinois.
- Volume X, The Political Unit of Public School Finance in Illinois.
- Volume XI, The Public School Debt in Illinois.
- Volume XII, A Study of Public School Costs in Illinois Cities.
- Volume XIII, Unit Costs in Higher Education.

It is not possible to present the findings of these investigations in a brief report. It may not, however, be out of place to call attention to certain results which have been accomplished by the inquiry.

The reports of the Educational Finance Inquiry present the most complete and reliable data so far available with

respect to expenditures for public education in relation to other public expenditures and in terms of the systems of taxation from which the revenues are derived. In the four states that have been studied intensively, evidence is presented which furnishes a basis in fact for the reconsideration of the whole program of support for public education. It seems clear, for example, that in these states the systems of state aid now in effect have not accomplished satisfactorily either the equalization of educational opportunity or the equitable distribution of the burden of support. These ends will be secured only by providing for state support based upon the acceptance of a minimum standard program for education to be provided for all children. It is equally clear from the investigations that efficiency in administration and economy in support of public education are dependent upon the establishment of larger units for the local administration of schools. No state could hope to establish a satisfactory program of financing education upon the basis of the more than ten thousand units of administration now to be found in the State of New York. Even if the very complicated problem of state support were satisfactorily developed for this enormous number of local school districts, one could not hope for the proper spending of the money by these ten thousand boards of education. It is important that we emphasize the need for competent administration of our schools as well as that we seek to provide for an equitable distribution of the burden of taxation.

In each of the reports to be issued will be found compilations of data, together with their interpretation. The series furnish a sound basis for the consideration of all the major problems involved in the financing of our schools. Methods of calculating unit costs, the determination of the real cost to the community as compared with current expenses, the present situation with respect to bonding for schoolhouses, the forecasting of costs in terms of present programs of education, the result of state apportionments to local school units, the ability of the state to support its public school

system, the need for a revision of the revenue system, and the like, are presented with a wealth of detail which will prove invaluable to the student of educational finance. During the inquiry the staff received frequent requests for advance information on these methods and for advice on similar studies in many other states. This indicates a widespread interest and desire to apply the findings throughout the country.

Possibly the most important contribution that the inquiry has made is to be found in this body of literature with its assembling of facts and its development of techniques which will furnish a basis for the training of students in this field. It will be entirely possible for the superintendent of schools, or for the student in training who studies these reports to proceed to conduct parallel investigations in other communities, or to undertake the next steps in investigation upon the basis of the reports of this inquiry. It is not possible to overemphasize the importance of training men in this field. If we are to provide an adequate fiscal administration for our public school system throughout the United States, we shall have to have men of sound training in educational finance at work in state, county, and city offices. It is not claiming too much for the investigation to propose that in the volumes of our report will be found the basic literature of this most important field.

The commission has sought to give publicity to the reports as they are issued. As each volume comes from the press it is distributed to colleges and universities, normal schools, state superintendents of schools, tax officials and others interested in the administration of public education. Press releases have been prepared which have been sent to the educational press, to the leading daily newspapers, to trade and technical journals, and the like. The response from the educational press has been most gratifying. The results in the daily newspapers have been less satisfactory. Our releases or excerpts from them have, however, appeared in all states of the country. In some states the governors or state

superintendents of schools have utilized the data given in our reports as a basis for presenting their cases to state legislatures.

As chairman of the commission I am glad to report to this body the satisfaction which all of us have had in working as a commission under the auspices of the American Council on Education. We have had the heartiest cooperation from the director of the council, and have felt entirely free to carry on our investigation as a scientific undertaking. It is indeed fortunate that the supporting foundations chose to place the administration of the funds which they contributed in support of the undertaking in the hands of the council. Not the least important contribution of the Educational Finance Inquiry has been the establishment on the part of both scientific workers and the foundations concerned, of a feeling of confidence in the procedure under which available funds for scientific inquiry are administered by this body.

GEORGE D. STRAYER.

Report of the Committee on Federal Legislation

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD has printed the bills introduced into the present Congress which affect education directly or indirectly. The majority of these bills raise no questions of immediate importance. There are, however, three proposals which have commanded the attention of your committee: (1) the Immigration Bill as it relates to foreign students, (2) the suggested tax on gifts as affecting gifts to educational institutions, and (3) the Sterling-Reed Bill for a Department of Education, and other bills intended to enlarge the usefulness of the present Federal Bureau of Education.

(1) With reference to the Immigration Bill. The bill as passed by the House contained the following clause with reference to foreign students: "Section 4, the term 'non-quota immigrant' means (g) an immigrant who is a bona fide student over 18 years of age and who seeks to enter the United States solely for the purpose of study at an accredited college, academy, seminary or university, particularly designated by him and approved by the Secretary (of Labor). Section 14, the admission to the United States of an alien declared to be a non-quota immigrant by subdivision (g) of Section 4, shall be for such time as may be by regulations prescribed, and under such conditions as may be by regulations prescribed (including, when deemed necessary, the giving of bond with sufficient surety, in such sum and containing such conditions as may be by regulations prescribed) to insure that, at the expiration of such time or upon failure to maintain the status under which admitted, he will depart from the United States. . . . (b) For the purposes of this section the marriage of an immigrant ineligible to citizenship admitted as a student under

subdivision (g) of Section 4 shall be considered to be a failure to maintain the status under which admitted."

The placing of students in the exempt status, so far as quota regulations are concerned, would make it possible for foreigners to come to the United States as students, provided the regulations as prescribed and administered by the Department of Labor did not place too much red tape in the way. The general attitude of the United States toward foreigners, however, as expressed in the Immigration Bill, is such as to make it unlikely that the United States will become in any large measure an international mart for the exchange of science and learning.

The Senate bill amendments replace students under the quota provisions, except that Section 3 (2) provides "an alien visiting the United States temporarily as a tourist, or temporarily for business, *study* or pleasure," may enter. The bill does not define the term temporarily, but the present rule is six months and this is harshly and rigidly enforced. Section 10 (c) (2) provides that in the case of aliens ineligible to citizenship, such as the Japanese, they may enter under the following conditions: (2) If such alien is an immigrant who continuously for at least two years immediately preceding the time of his application for admission to the United States has been, and who seeks to enter the United States solely for the purpose of carrying on the vocation of minister of any religious denomination, or professor of a college, academy, seminary, or university; or (3) if such alien is an immigrant who is a bona fide student over fifteen years of age and who seeks to enter the United States solely for the purpose of study at an accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university, particularly designated by him and approved by the Secretary of Labor."

It is reported that the conferees will restore the House provision. As the matter is now hanging in the balance, it would seem desirable for the council to take definite action on the subject and to appoint a special committee to present the resolution to the conferees.

(2) The Income Tax Bill presented in the House, placing a tax upon gifts to be paid by the donor provides that "gifts or contributions for exclusively public purposes, or to or for the use of any corporation organized and operated exclusively for religious, charitable, scientific, literary, or educational purposes, including the encouragement of art and the prevention of cruelty to children or animals" are exempt. Educational institutions therefore will not be affected adversely, should this bill become a law, except in so far as the disposition of the Government to take property from the rich in increasing measure by law diminishes any feeling of moral obligation on the part of the rich to contribute voluntarily to the public welfare.

(3) The Sterling-Towner Bill was introduced in the present Congress without change and is now generally known as the Sterling-Reed Bill. Extensive hearings have been held by both the Senate Committee on Education and Labor and the House Committee. Four hundred pages of closely printed testimony and exhibits have been printed by the Senate Committee, the hearings having taken place on January 22, 23, 24 and 25. The stenographic report of the hearings before the House Committee which were held in February, March and April, has not yet appeared. The hearings have shown that there is no diminution of interest in the subject, but that on the contrary feeling is growing very intense and bitter, both among the supporters and opposers of the measure. It is generally admitted that there is no subject now before Congress which is packed with more political dynamite than the bill to create a Department of Education, and, apparently, neither the members of the Senate nor of the House are anxious to be forced into the position of having to vote one way or another on the measure. The hearings have developed no new aspects of the question, but have demonstrated how subject a proposal of this kind is in a democracy to the popular waves of feeling of the moment and how the fate of the proposal is dependent on other matters totally unrelated, such as

the enforcement of the Volstead Act, arbitrary and unfair administration in connection with the federal income tax, the harsh treatment of aliens by the immigration authorities, the oil scandal and other unpopular acts of the central government. The bogey of federal tyranny in education looms large when a Department of Education is suggested, in the eyes of some who, apparently, are blind to the fact that the Immigration Act places in the hands of the Secretary of Labor the determination whether any given school or college is a suitable one for aliens to attend; that the control of radio, with all its educational possibilities, has been placed in the hands of the Secretary of Commerce; that the Federal Government conducts an extensive system of military education and propaganda through the R. O. T. C., and assumes to say, through the Department of Justice or the postoffice, what teachings may or may not be transmitted to the people of the United States.

The notable step forward since the last meeting of the council is the decision made by President Coolidge to support the policy of President Harding and his declaration in his message that "I do not favor the making of appropriations from the National Treasury to be expended directly on local education, but I do consider it (education) a fundamental requirement of national activity, which, accompanied by allied subjects of welfare, is worthy of a separate department and a place in the Cabinet." This statement ranges at least one of the prospective candidates in the presidential campaign on the side of a Department of Education. Should the other candidate prove to be from New York it will be difficult for him to oppose a department without causing some of the dynamite which members of Congress recognize as packed in the bill to explode in the coming campaign.

By holding sectional meetings in Washington and Chicago last fall, your committee was able to secure a record vote of all members of the committee but one, including Messrs. Pace, Willoughby, Mann, Burton, Judson, McVey,

Vinson and MacCracken, with reference to the Sterling-Reed Bill. The following alternatives were presented to the members of the committee:

Shall the American Council support the Sterling-Reed Bill as amended?

Shall we ask that the bill be divided into two parts, one dealing with the organization of the department and the other with the subsidies?

Shall the American Council draft an independent bill and ask Senator Borah to introduce it?

Shall the American Council endorse its present attitude as favoring a department but not favoring subsidies and take no further action?

Shall the Council prepare a statement of its judgment for presentation to the Joint Congressional Commission on Reorganization of Government Departments and then wait for the action of the joint commission?

After consideration of the alternatives, it was the sense of the committee that the council might properly support the Sterling-Reed Bill as far as the educational organization was concerned, provided it made provision for including the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the department and also suitable means of securing coordination among the educational activities of the Federal Government in the form of a Federal Council on Education, or otherwise.

It was also agreed that it would be desirable were the bill divided into two parts, one dealing with the organization and the other with subsidies. These suggestions were presented to the sponsors of the Sterling-Towner Bill, before the introduction of the Sterling-Reed Bill, but they decided that it was better tactics to introduce the bill without change.

At the hearing before the Senate, Dr. Mann appeared and presented certain practical suggestions as to possible amendments to the pending bill. He offered the amendments, however, as an individual and not officially on behalf of the council. At the hearing before the House Committee, both Dr. Mann and the chairman of your committee appeared. A full record is given in the stenographic reports of the hearings.

It is evidently the intention of the committees to prolong the hearings and to avoid any report on the bill at this session.

In addition to the Sterling-Reed Bill there have been introduced in the present Congress two bills by Mr. Dal-linger; one, H. R. 5795, a bill to establish a Department of Education and Welfare, and for other purposes. This is the bill known as the Administration Bill and embodies the suggestions worked out under President Harding for a Department of Education and Welfare with four sub-divisions: (1) Division of Education, (2) Division of Public Health, (3) Division of Social Service, and (4) Division of Veteran Service—each division to be in charge of an assistant secretary. The act transfers to the new department many existing government agencies and provides that other agencies may be so transferred upon the President's order. H. R. 6582, entitled "A bill to provide for the better definition and extension of the purpose and duties of the Bureau of Education, and for other purposes," authorizes the bureau to conduct investigations, creates the office of Assistant Commissioner of Education, authorizes the detail of the Bureau of Education of officers of the military, naval or other services of the United States, transfers to the Bureau of Education the Federal Board for Vocational Education and increases the appropriation for the Bureau of Education to \$500,000. It also places under the administration of the Commissioner of Education the administration of certain acts now assigned to the Secretary of the Interior and provides for the creation of a National Council of Education of fifteen members. This bill may be regarded as indicating the immediate steps which might be taken for the expansion of the work of the Bureau of Education pending the creation of a department. So far as I know, however, no important group has placed itself behind either of these measures and it is not likely that they will receive serious consideration until the major question of the department has been fought out.

The committee was instructed by resolution at the last annual meeting of the council to make a study of the fundamental principles involved in federal legislation with regard to education, to inform the council of the progress of such study and, if need arose, to request the Executive Committee to call a special meeting of the council. In accordance with this resolution, the question was presented to the Committee on Federal Legislation and inquiry was made of a number of authorities on education, such as Professor Dewey, of Columbia; Professor Munro, of Harvard; Professor Judd, of Chicago, and others, to ascertain whether there was in existence any comprehensive study or adequate statement of the relation between government and education in a republic. It was found that no such study was in existence. The committee, therefore, adopted a resolution asking the director of the council to present the matter to the various philanthropic foundations and ascertain whether a grant could be secured to make possible a comprehensive study of relations of the Federal Government and education. It was suggested that such a study might begin with a digest of court decisions, both state and federal, bearing on this subject, it having come to the attention of the committee that, in connection with school taxes and otherwise, there were in existence very extensive discussions of the subject by the judges of various courts. So far, however, it has not been possible to secure any funds for this study, but the increasing interest in the subject is creating an ever-increasing series of monographs dealing with one or another aspect of the question. An example of this is the very extensive study on the constitutionality of the Sterling Bill prepared by Congressman Henry St. George Tucker, of Virginia. Referring to this study President Chandler testified at the hearing, "that there are some very good citizens from Virginia who like to argue that things are unconstitutional, but that is because of their own physical constitution rather than the Constitution of the United States." President Alderman, also of Virginia, began a recent address with the

thesis, "A democracy cannot exist unless it is based on intelligence. The education of the people, therefore, is the primary interest of any democratic state. Let us all remember that claim. Education is the primary, not the secondary, interest of any state or community." If we subscribe to Dr. Alderman's thesis it would seem that education in a democracy can claim all the rights which political theory universally accords to self-preservation.

The question of a Department of Education as it has now developed has become a bigger question than any question of mere governmental administration. It has become a contest between two ideals for our country. Those who see significance in the linking of education and labor under one committee in Congress and who dread the growing power of the working man, who know the place accorded to education in every labor platform, but who have themselves lost faith in the possibility of education fitting the common man to rule, will oppose the magnifying of the place of education in a democracy by the setting of a chair for education at the President's table. Those who believe, with Abraham Lincoln, that the people are ultimately to be trusted and that it is a race between education and revolution in our civilization will be prepared to let education, as well as war, commerce and labor, sit in at the President's conference. The greatest mistake that capitalism and the educational spokesmen of capitalism can make at the present juncture is to resist the natural and justifiable ambition of the educational forces of the country to be represented in the national councils, and thus to throw the sympathies of these educational forces to the side of the forces opposed to our present economic system. Education has not the might of capital and it has not the numbers of labor, but it is a valuable ally and generally casts the deciding vote.

J. H. MACCRACKEN, *Chairman.*

Division of College and University Personnel

IT IS a particular pleasure to me to speak to the American Council on Education on this subject, as I have for a long time looked upon such a piece of work as full of great possibilities both for college teachers and for the colleges and universities of the country. In fact, it would seem to have possibilities for advancing American higher education greater than any other one agency.

At the present time there are three ways in which a college instructor may hope for advancement outside of the institution in which he teaches. One is through his scientific or literary publications, and I would judge that there are not more than one-tenth of the 40,000 college teachers whose publications are of great note. A second way is through the activity of the Appointment Bureau of the college or university with which he was connected as a student. Unfortunately, very few of these bureaus are looking after their alumni after they are once in the field. A third way is through teachers' agencies, which are in the main not very satisfactory.

A college instructor who after finishing his graduate work secures an appointment and goes to work earnestly, giving all of his time and strength and energy to serving the students under his charge and keeping abreast of his subject, will in many cases not be able to do very much work for publication and will not have very many contacts with other institutions. Many of these men are able and will grow largely in value to colleges and universities as teachers if the appointing authorities in the different institutions can come in contact with them and offer them deserved promotion. This enterprise is of great value in my eyes, largely because a register, such as the Personnel Division maintains, makes it certain that any one seeking a man for a position would at least have

before him the names of *all* available men, and that it will insure every instructor that he will be considered for every position for which he is suitable.

On the other hand, it has great possibilities for the colleges and universities. Its service may not be very great to the fifteen or twenty large universities, who through their faculties are in close touch with a great many of the leading men in each field of knowledge; but outside of these fifteen or twenty institutions I believe this register will be of the very greatest value. The head of a college department or the college president or dean who is looking for a man to fill a definite position in a college is also greatly limited in his points of contact and naturally turns to the great graduate schools of the country, who can, sometimes, serve him very well, and at other times rather poorly. He can also turn to the teachers' agencies, but here again he is likely to have recommended the men and women who are dissatisfied with their present positions and who in many cases will not be much better satisfied with the one he has to offer. With the work of the Personnel Division complete and up-to-date he can go through the files of the men teaching the subjects in which he is interested with confidence that he will find the name of every person in the country who may be available for his position.

It may be helpful to consider the magnitude of this enterprise. I understand there are about 40,000 instructors in accredited American colleges and universities. It would be conservative to say that they are receiving on the average at least \$2,000 a year in salary. This would mean a total yearly salary of \$80,000,000. I would roughly estimate that this is nearer \$100,000,000, but certainly \$80,000,000 is conservative. Should the maintenance of this division cost \$27,000 a year, it would be only .03 per cent of the salaries involved. I think we could assume without any question that the professional advancement resulting from the Personnel Division would improve the college efficiency throughout the country several per cent.

Looking at it in another way, assuming that 15 per cent of the college teachers are placed each year and that one-third are now placed by teachers' agencies, this would mean an expenditure of at least \$200,000 a year to teachers' agencies on the part of college instructors. An effective register and staff would go far towards saving part of this money.

Considering the enterprise from the point of view of the college, I can illustrate it somewhat by my own experience. In thirteen years I have made 217 appointments to the educational staff. Seventy-four were due to additional positions established to meet growth and 143 to replace teachers who withdrew from the staff. The number annually has ranged from six appointments in 1912-13 to twenty-four in 1918-19, and the average has been sixteen appointments a year. As each appointment was made I have always felt that perhaps a better man was somewhere in the country who could be secured for the salary I had available if I had any means of finding him.

In the cases in which I have consulted the Personnel Division of the Council this year, my final appointments have been made with greater confidence than ever before.

The quality of a college depends almost wholly on the quality of the staff. I can think of nothing that would be of more value than the service of this Personnel Division in making it possible for a college executive to maintain the quality of his staff at the highest point possible, considering his available funds.

When you consider that there are probably in the neighborhood of one hundred types of teaching positions—e.g., European History, American History, Physical Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, etc.—and that there are between 35,000 and 40,000 teachers all told, it would mean that there are between 350 and 400 teachers of each type in the country, on the average. Probably there would be near 2,000 teachers of English, perhaps only twenty-five to fifty teachers of highly specialized subjects like ceramics. Within each class the men could be classified within certain salary ranges

The total number of men available for consideration for any position would not be so very great.

At the close of the first year and a half of the existence of the Division of College and University Personnel, it will be interesting to you to note something of the progress thus far, as reported by Miss Sargent, directing the division.

Sixteen thousand teachers, or about 38 per cent, are registered and the list is growing rapidly. The files have been officially opened to college executives seeking instructors. The information at hand is so organized as to be quickly available for reference and research. Over eighty vacancies have been referred to the division and, although no figures are yet obtainable, it is known that some appointments have already been made through its instrumentality.

Steps have been taken to make the Personnel Division a focal point of all similar activities in the country. The cordial cooperation of the directors of the college appointment offices has been enlisted, many of them having urged their registrants to file their records with the division. Complete coordination of effort in the field of non-commercial educational service is being earnestly sought.

In what concrete ways has it already proved itself worthy to endure?

In the first place, its reception has conclusively borne witness to the need that has existed for some years for such a service. Six college presidents have consulted the files in person since the official invitation to use the service was issued on February 12. All have expressed great appreciation of its value and high hopes for the good which will continue to develop out of the enterprise. Eighty others have attested to their confidence by using its facilities by mail. Many have come back a second and even a third time. That, with three exceptions, every college and university president of the 346 accredited higher institutions has willingly cooperated in the registration of his faculty bears witness to a universal hope that the venture will prove as it has promised.

From the standpoint of the teachers the situation is much the same. The founders of the Personnel Division predicted that a national impersonal service would result in bringing to light the qualifications of "persons of outstanding capacities, who are too frequently marooned in insignificant posts." The appointments already made are largely from the ranks of just such teachers. They have no active grievance against their present situation and they do not, for many reasons, desire to commit themselves to the commercial agencies nor to resort to their friends at court. Yet they have outgrown their present posts and are fitted for something better. By the method employed by the Division of sending out inclusive lists of teachers, the qualifications of these persons are constantly coming to the attention of college officials

seeking instructors. Manifestly, this will sooner or later bring results.

As an information and statistical bureau the files of the division should prove invaluable. Lately, a college dean, desiring an estimate of the number of college teachers in the United States who had taken degrees at Canadian universities, referred the question to the division and received the exact information which he desired. This is only a small instance of the possibilities for disseminating information. Each item on the registration blank, multiplied by the fifteen to forty thousand names which will ultimately be listed, may be significant as the nucleus for statistical research.

I would like to stress one point in connection with the college executives' use of names obtained here. A cursory glance at the records will not locate a man. The Council has forsworn all efforts to make personal recommendations and the names sent out are merely guideposts. The guidepost does not lead; it points. It obviates going blindly into roads that end nowhere, which, under the methods largely in practice, is exactly what the nominating official does many times. The point I am trying to make is that the men who have actually obtained results from these lists are those who have set about assiduously to follow up their guides. They did not expect the Personnel Division to do away with *all* of their labor. They simply diverted this labor to a systematic and effective procedure. Some of the lists sent out are, I know, inadequate. I feel, however, that the above criticism is often justified.

Before closing this paper, I should like to suggest one possible study that could be made in this field.

As we endeavor to employ men for different types of positions, we get certain impressions of the supply and demand of teachers in different fields, but so far as I know no one really knows how many positions there are of the various types in the country.

A study of the registration from year to year, as the list becomes more and more complete, would give fairly accurate information on the number of positions in the country within different salary ranges and within different types of work.

For example, take as an illustration teachers of physics. There are two general types of positions—one, where the instructor is teaching graduate students in part and where research work is an important part of the duties of the teacher; the other, where the teaching of undergraduates is the essential part of the work with very little or no instruction of graduate students and very restricted opportunity for

research. These positions also range in salaries from \$800 for part-time instructors to perhaps \$10,000 or \$12,000 in some of our largest universities. A report on the number of positions of each type within certain ranges of salaries would be of tremendous interest and value to any instructor in physics who is considering his professional possibilities.

I personally feel that this division of the work of the Council has tremendous possibilities for advancing education in the United States. I most earnestly hope that the Council will be able to maintain this work with an increasing budget, and that the time is not far distant when this division of the work can have some definite subsidy from some of the foundations that have funds available for advancing education. It would seem to me best that the division should not grow too rapidly, but I feel confident that within five years it could be made one of the most important factors in the educational development of the country. In behalf of this division I most earnestly solicit the interest and support of all of the members of the Council.

The following tables give the distribution of the present registration by colleges and by subjects of instruction.

R. M. HUGHES.

REGISTRATION BY SUBJECTS

Administrative.....	264	* Modern Combinations of	
Presidents.....	252	Romanic and Germanic	1,165
Agriculture.....	1,060	Semitics.....	50
Anthropology and Archaeology.....	49	Slavonics.....	6
Architecture.....	90	Comparative Literature and Philology.....	5
Art.....	158	Law.....	215
Astronomy and Astrophysics	69	Library Science and Librarians.....	130
Biology.....	897	Manual and Industrial Art	35
Chemistry.....	915	Mathematics.....	757
Economics.....	865	Medicine and Dentistry...	1,425
Education.....	580	Military Science and Tactics.....	32
Engineering.....	1,035	Music.....	327
Forestry.....	74	Philosophy.....	192
Geology.....	340	Physical Education.....	344
History.....	530	Physics.....	522
Home Economics.....	379	Political Science.....	208
Landscape Art.....	24	Psychology.....	273
Languages and Literature:		Religion and Biblical Literature.....	2
Celtic.....	0	Sociology.....	213
Chinese and Japanese...	3		
Classics.....	364		
English.....	1,318		

* These figures are approximate.

REGISTRATION BY INSTITUTIONS TO MAY 1, 1924

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks returned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Alabama:			
Alabama Polytechnic Institute.....	115	38	.33
University of Alabama.....	111	1	.00
Arizona:			
University of Arizona.....	107	107	1.00
California:			
California Institute of Technology..	78	26	.33
College of the Pacific.....	39	11	.28
Leland Stanford, Jr.....	437	125	.28

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>per cent</i>
<i>California—Continued.</i>			
Mills College.....	62	37	.59
Occidental College.....	34	18	.52
Pomona College.....	68	40	.58
University of California.....	1,458	261	.17
University of Redlands.....	27	19	.70
University of Southern California...	281	109	.38
Whittier College.....	14	7	.50
<i>Colorado:</i>			
Colorado Agricultural College.....	71	8	.11
Colorado College.....	55	37	.67
Colorado State Teachers College....	103	35	.33
University of Colorado.....	247	41	.16
University of Denver.....	48	40	.83
<i>Connecticut:</i>			
Connecticut College for Women....	46	23	.50
Trinity College.....	28	16	.57
Wesleyan University.....	59	24	.40
Yale University.....	449	321	.71
<i>Delaware:</i>			
University of Delaware.....	62	17	.27
<i>District of Columbia:</i>			
Catholic University of America.....	94	0	.00
George Washington University.....	227	51	.22
Georgetown University.....	226	10	.04
Trinity College.....	47	0	.00
<i>Florida:</i>			
Florida State College for Women...	66	23	.35
John B. Stetson University.....	39	0	.00
University of Florida.....	75	39	.52
<i>Georgia:</i>			
Agnes Scott College.....	43	8	.18
Brenau College.....	30	0	.00
Emory University.....	176	0	.00
Mercer University.....	81	22	.27
University of Georgia.....	155	1	.00
<i>Idaho:</i>			
University of Idaho.....	154	60	.38

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Illinois:			
Armour Institute of Technology....	72	19	.26
Augustana College.....	67	14	.20
Carthage College.....	25	21	.84
De Paul University.....	88	0	.00
Illinois College.....	27	2	.07
Illinois Wesleyan University.....	50	0	.00
Illinois Woman's College.....	35	17	.48
James Millikin University.....	57	10	.17
Knox College.....	44	2	.04
Lake Forest College.....	25	20	.40
Lewis Institute.....	53	12	.22
Lombard College.....	23	17	.74
Monmouth College.....	30	4	.13
Northwestern College.....	36	0	.00
Northwestern University.....	537	124	.23
Rockford College.....	40	35	.87
St. Francis Xavier.....	37	0	.00
St. Ignatius College.....	15	0	.00
University of Chicago.....	375	300	.80
University of Illinois.....	1,104	438	.39
Wheaton College.....	29	6	.20
Indiana:			
Butler College.....	38	20	.52
De Pauw University.....	64	39	.61
Earlham College.....	34	15	.44
Franklin College.....	22	12	.54
Hanover College.....	17	3	.17
Indiana State Normal School.....	66	50	.75
Indiana University.....	213	213	1.00
Purdue University.....	222	167	.75
Rose Polytechnic Institute.....	20	8	.40
St. Mary's College.....	48	0	.00
St. Mary of the Woods.....	35	0	.00
University of Notre Dame.....	121	61	.50
Wabash College.....	27	3	.11
Iowa:			
Coe College.....	56	30	.53
Columbia College.....	12	0	.00
Cornell College.....	51	22	.43

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
<i>Iowa—Continued.</i>			
Des Moines University.....	33	8	.24
Drake University.....	71	3	.04
Grinnell College.....	69	43	.62
Iowa State College.....	792	206	.26
Iowa State Teachers College.....	175	104	.59
Iowa Wesleyan College.....	26	11	.42
Luther College.....	21	1	.05
Morningside College.....	43	13	.30
Mt. St. Joseph.....	23	0	.00
Parsons College.....	18	6	.33
Penn College.....	30	0	.00
Simpson College.....	34	8	.23
State University of Iowa.....	425	195	.45
University of Dubuque.....	27	12	.44
Upper Iowa University.....	26	2	.08
<i>Kansas:</i>			
Baker University.....	36	11	.30
Bethany College.....	31	5	.16
College of Emporia.....	26	0	.00
Fairmount College.....	30	3	.10
Friends University.....	18	8	.44
Kansas State Agricultural College...	257	143	.55
Kansas State Teachers College, Hays	35	14	.40
Kansas State Teachers College, Pitts- burg.....	100	58	.58
Kansas State Teachers College, Em- poria.....	100	9	.09
McPherson College.....	28	16	.57
Ottawa University.....	27	11	.40
St. Mary's College.....	32	6	.18
Southwestern College.....	27	1	.03
University of Kansas.....	296	2	.00
Washburn College.....	58	15	.25
<i>Kentucky:</i>			
Centre College.....	14	10	.71
Georgetown College.....	25	12	.48
Transylvania College.....	23	0	.00
University of Kentucky.....	150	132	.88
University of Louisville.....	37	2	.05

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Louisiana:			
Louisiana State University.....	91	22	.24
Tulane University of Louisiana.....	359	45	.12
Maine:			
Bates College.....	36	9	.25
Bowdoin College.....	35	12	.30
Colby College.....	32	0	.00
University of Maine.....	118	46	.38
Maryland:			
Goucher College.....	76	49	.64
Johns Hopkins University.....	449	192	.43
Loyola University.....	18	0	.00
Mt. St. Mary's College.....	39	1	.02
Rock Hill College.....	15	0	.00
St. John's College.....	18	10	.55
University of Maryland.....	395	76	.19
Washington College.....	14	5	.35
Western Maryland College.....	29	11	.38
Massachusetts:			
Amherst.....	51	17	.33
Boston College.....	42	0	.00
Boston University.....	362	80	.22
Clark University.....	32	31	.96
Harvard University.....	947	279	.29
Holy Cross College.....	54	9	.16
Massachusetts Agricultural College..	88	59	.67
Massachusetts Institute of Technol- ogy.....	394	105	.26
Mt. Holyoke College.....	87	115	1.00
Smith College.....	205	89	.43
Tufts College.....	381	103	.27
Wellesley College.....	150	141	.94
Wheaton College.....	32	36	1.00
Williams College.....	60	50	.83
Worcester Polytechnic Institute....	59	54	.91
Michigan:			
Adrian College.....	14	5	.36
Albion College.....	42	17	.40
Alma College.....	22	11	.50
Hillsdale College.....	35	8	.23

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
<i>Michigan—Continued.</i>			
Hope College.....	26	8	.31
Kalamazoo College.....	26	14	.54
Michigan Agricultural College.....	159	102	.64
Michigan College of Mines.....	24	11	.46
Olivet College.....	24	1	.04
University of Detroit.....	190	18	.09
University of Michigan.....	629	422	.67
<i>Minnesota:</i>			
Carleton College.....	65	65	1.00
College of St. Catherine.....	40	17	.42
College of St. Teresa.....	20	0	.00
College of St. Thomas.....	55	11	.20
Gustavus Adolphus College.....	26	7	.27
Hamline University.....	43	38	.88
Macalester College.....	27	16	.59
St. Olaf College.....	58	42	.72
University of Minnesota.....	622	622	1.00
<i>Mississippi:</i>			
Millsaps College.....	16	4	.25
Mississippi State College for Women.	65	0	.00
University of Mississippi.....	38	17	.45
<i>Missouri:</i>			
Central College.....	15	5	.33
Drury College.....	26	11	.42
Kirksville State Teachers College...	50	0	.00
Lindenwood College.....	39	18	.46
Missouri Valley College.....	13	11	.85
Missouri Wesleyan College.....	40	0	.00
Park College.....	22	5	.23
St. Louis University.....	30	13	.43
Tarkio College.....	22	0	.00
University of Missouri.....	423	175	.41
Washington University.....	218	107	.49
Westminster College.....	14	1	.07
William Jewell College.....	16	0	.00
<i>Montana:</i>			
Montana State College.....	149	50	.34
University of Montana.....	76	65	.86

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Nebraska:			
Cotner University.....	32	9	.28
Creighton University.....	146	0	.00
Doane University.....	22	8	.36
Grand Island College.....	16	9	.56
Hastings College.....	29	1	.03
Nebraska Wesleyan University....	56	21	.37
Union College.....	26	7	.27
University of Nebraska.....	415	163	.39
University of Omaha.....	23	7	.25
York College.....	20	1	.05
Nevada:			
University of Nevada.....	72	31	.43
New Hampshire:			
Dartmouth College.....	164	164	1.00
New Hampshire University.....	90	71	.79
New Jersey:			
College of St. Elizabeth.....	31	28	.90
Princeton University.....	232	133	.57
Rutgers College.....	96	1	.01
Stevens Institute of Technology....	62	17	.27
New Mexico:			
New Mexico College, A. and M. A...	34	10	.29
University of New Mexico.....	29	0	.00
New York:			
Adelphi College.....	27	0	.00
Alfred University.....	32	23	.72
Canisius College.....	23	3	.13
Cathedral College.....	15	2	.13
Clarkson College of Technology....	17	7	.41
Colgate University.....	51	47	.92
College of City of New York.....	587	79	.13
College of Mt. St. Vincent.....	25	0	.00
College of New Rochelle.....	45	1	.02
Columbia University.....	1,504	383	.25
Cornell University.....	766	528	.69
D'Youville College.....	16	0	.00
Elmira College.....	34	28	.83
Fordham University.....	42	2	.05

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
<i>New York—Continued.</i>			
Hamilton College.....	30	0	.00
Hobart College.....	27	12	.44
Hunter College.....	283	35	.12
Manhattan College.....	16	0	.00
New York State Teachers College..	57	30	.33
New York University.....	679	161	.24
Niagara University.....	30	0	.00
Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn....	47	15	.32
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute....	84	5	.06
St. Francis College.....	16	1	.07
St. John's College.....	30	1	.03
St. Lawrence University.....	92	9	.10
St. Stephen's College.....	14	4	.35
Syracuse University.....	464	9	.02
University of Buffalo.....	241	52	.21
Union University.....	60	9	.15
University of Rochester.....	50	49	.98
Vassar College.....	150	52	.34
Wells College.....	33	32	.98
William Smith College.....	30	0	.00
<i>North Carolina:</i>			
Davidson College.....	25	11	.45
Elon College.....	27	1	.00
Meredith College.....	43	8	.22
North Carolina College for Women..	153	14	.09
St. Genevieve's College.....	26	0	.00
Trinity College.....	106	6	.06
University of North Carolina.....	123	61	.50
Wake Forest College.....	40	0	.00
<i>North Dakota:</i>			
Jamestown College.....	23	7	.35
North Dakota Agricultural College..	508	47	.09
University of North Dakota.....	121	54	.44
<i>Ohio:</i>			
Baldwin Wallace College.....	43	7	.17
Capital University.....	38	5	.12
Case School of Applied Science.....	67	61	.96
College of Wooster.....	47	15	.34

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
<i>Ohio—Continued.</i>			
Defiance College.....	23	12	.52
Denison University.....	72	21	.30
Heidelberg University.....	21	2	.10
Hiram College.....	26	13	.50
Kenyon College.....	45	12	.30
Lake Erie College.....	29	20	.65
Marietta College.....	30	18	.60
Miami University.....	93	78	.84
Municipal University of Akron.....	50	47	.94
Mt. Union College.....	32	13	.35
Muskingum College.....	95	29	.32
Oberlin College.....	176	77	.43
Ohio State University.....	625	6	.00
Ohio University.....	90	0	.00
Ohio Wesleyan University.....	128	96	.75
Otterbein University.....	33	18	.54
Toledo University.....	47	1	.02
St. Ignatius College.....	12	0	.00
University of Cincinnati.....	384	165	.43
Western College for Women.....	32	0	.00
Western Reserve University.....	376	133	.35
Wittenberg College.....	28	28	1.00
<i>Oklahoma:</i>			
Oklahoma Agri. and Mining College.....	106	66	.62
Oklahoma College for Women.....	42	11	.26
Phillips University.....	36	9	.25
University of Oklahoma.....	170	1	.00
<i>Oregon:</i>			
Pacific University.....	21	5	.24
Reed College.....	33	7	.21
University of Oregon.....	131	96	.73
Willamette University.....	125	2	.01
<i>Pennsylvania:</i>			
Allegheny College.....	34	1	.02
Bryn Mawr College.....	73	47	.64
Bucknell University.....	48	12	.25
Carnegie Institute of Technology..	350	44	.13
Dickinson College.....	25	5	.20

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
<i>Pennsylvania—Continued.</i>			
Drexel Institute.....	50	30	.60
Dropsie College.....	6	2	.33
Franklin and Marshall College.....	28	5	.18
Gettysburg College.....	32	17	.53
Grove City College.....	32	8	.25
Haverford College.....	25	14	.56
Lafayette College.....	71	54	.76
Lebanon Valley College.....	21	8	.38
Lehigh University.....	104	84	.81
Marywood College.....	39	1	.02
Muhlenburg College.....	27	10	.37
Pennsylvania State College.....	591	211	.36
St. Vincent College.....	40	2	.05
Seton Hill College.....	34	5	.14
Susquehanna University.....	23	4	.17
Swarthmore College.....	45	23	.51
Temple University.....	408	97	.21
University of Pennsylvania.....	1,006	467	.46
University of Pittsburgh.....	446	203	.45
Ursinus College.....	21	2	.09
Villanova College.....	39	3	.07
Washington and Jefferson College...	27	17	.63
Westminster College.....	25	2	.08
Wilson College.....	35	16	.45
<i>Rhode Island:</i>			
Brown University.....	102	48	.47
<i>South Carolina:</i>			
College of Charleston.....	11	0	.00
Converse College.....	35	11	.31
University of South Carolina.....	43	38	.88
Wofford College.....	21	6	.28
Winthrop College.....	90	41	.45
<i>South Dakota:</i>			
Dakota Wesleyan University.....	34	1	.00
Huron College.....	25	20	.80
South Dakota College of A. & M. A.	107	30	.18
University of South Dakota.....	65	45	.69
Yankton College.....	25	9	.36

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Tennessee:			
George Peabody Teachers College...	109	24	.23
Maryville College.....	49	2	.04
Southwest'n Presbyterian University	13	9	.69
University of Chattanooga.....	14	9	.64
University of the South.....	27	13	.48
University of Tennessee.....	226	36	.16
Vanderbilt University.....	165	26	.16
Texas:			
Baylor University.....	58	19	.32
College of Industrial Arts.....	110	0	.00
Rice Institute.....	117	29	.25
Southwestern University.....	25	14	.56
Southern Methodist University.....	104	15	.14
Trinity University.....	27	9	.33
University of Texas.....	314	308	.98
Utah:			
Brigham Young University.....	76	0	.00
Agricultural College of Utah.....	78	47	.60
University of Utah.....	150	53	.33
Vermont:			
Middlebury College.....	51	33	.65
University of Vermont.....	140	120	.88
Virginia:			
College of William and Mary.....	40	29	.72
Emory and Henry College.....	14	1	.07
Hampden-Sidney College.....	12	7	.06
Randolph-Macon College.....	24	9	.37
Randolph-Macon Woman's College..	51	0	.00
Roanoke College.....	24	2	.08
Sweet Briar College.....	31	15	.48
University of Richmond.....	45	12	.23
University of Virginia.....	114	74	.65
Virginia Polytechnic Institute.....	122	0	.00
Washington and Lee University....	52	17	.33
Washington:			
State College of Washington.....	181	107	.60
University of Washington.....	268	154	.59
Whitman College.....	33	18	.56

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Number of faculty*</i>	<i>Number of blanks re- turned</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
West Virginia:			
Bethany College.....	25	18	.72
West Virginia University.....	188	113	.60
Wisconsin:			
Beloit College.....	49	47	.96
Campion College.....	33	0	.00
Carroll College.....	22	12	.54
Lawrence College.....	64	1	.00
Marquette University.....	310	1	.00
Milton College.....	17	10	.60
Milwaukee-Downer College.....	40	18	.48
Northwestern College.....	16	0	.00
Ripon College.....	31	0	.00
University of Wisconsin.....	1,003	564	.56
Wyoming:			
University of Wyoming.....	84	58	.69
Registration from other sources.....	83
Total.....	41,106	15,951	.39

*These figures are taken from the College Blue Book, 1923-24.

NOTE: Lack of returns from many of the colleges is due to late registration.

Report of the Committee on Foreign Language Teaching

A COMMITTEE of modern language teachers has been formed to make a thorough study of the teaching of the foreign modern languages of the United States and Canada. The investigation will be carried on under the auspices of the American Council on Education, with the cooperation of the Carnegie Corporation.

The enormous increase in secondary school and college registration during the last five years, together with the growing emphasis upon oral instruction, has created serious problems in modern language instruction. The committee hopes to determine by scientific tests which groups of students are best fitted to pursue the study of the modern languages, the best methods and materials of instruction suitable for each group, and the best means of securing a close correlation between modern language study and other subjects in the curriculum. As a result of this investigation, it is hoped that a constructive program of recommendations may be made for improving the teaching of the foreign modern languages in secondary schools and colleges.

An attempt will be made to formulate the ultimate aims and purposes of modern language instruction by seeking information from persons whose duty it is to measure public opinion, as well as from those who by their official position or from individual experience are entitled to enlightening views regarding the national, regional, vocational, cultural, and social values of modern language study.

The chairman of the investigation is Prof. Robert H. Fife, of Columbia University.

J. P. W. CRAWFORD.

Report of the Committee on the American University Union

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE of the Council at a meeting held on February 27 confirmed the conditions of the merger between the American University Union as set forth in the director's letters of February 12 and 25, and recognized the acceptance of these terms by the trustees of the union, as completing the contract of merger between the two organizations.

The American University Union, which thus became part of the Council on Education, was founded in 1917 as a war organization "to meet the needs of American university and college men who are in Europe for military or other service in the cause of the Allies." Over 30,000 ex-service men remember gratefully the Palace Hotel on the Rue de Richelieu, Paris; the St. James's Palace Hotel, London, or the Royal Hotel, Rome, where they found opportunity for meeting their friends, getting their letters, obtaining comfortable rooms and meals at reasonable prices, and receiving information on the numberless topics of interest to the young American abroad. The usefulness of the organization was so convincingly established by the experience of the war that it was decided to continue operations on a peace basis, the general object of the union being newly defined in these words: "To serve as a bond between the universities of the United States and those of European nations." The war headquarters in Paris and London had reverted to their ordinary hotel business, and suitable offices for the union were rented, in Paris at 1 Rue de Fleurus, in London at 50 Russell Square. Last year the Paris office was moved to more commodious and eligible quarters at 173 Boulevard St. Germain, the handsome building recently acquired by the

Dotation Carnegie, but the London office has remained in the convenient location on Russell Square, near the British Museum and University College, where it shares an old London mansion with the Federation of British Universities and other educational organizations. The union thus brings into the partnership just established well-equipped and well-staffed offices and a reputation for efficient and devoted service to American students and professors. During the last year 1,392 American students registered at the Paris bureau from 166 American educational institutions, and 943 at the London office.

The Executive Committee, at the meeting above referred to, created the standing committee of the council to be known as the Committee on the American University Union, its duties being to maintain and administer the headquarters of the union and to develop international relations. Twenty-five gentlemen, nominated by the trustees of the American University Union in Europe and comprising members of its own board and of the Council Committee of International Education Relations, constitute the new committee with Dr. H. P. Judson as chairman, Dr. A. P. Stokes as vice-chairman, and Prof. J. W. Cunliffe as secretary.

This committee held its first meeting on May 1 and appointed, as director of the British Division, Prof. C. M. Gayley, professor of the English Language and Literature, Emeritus, in the University of California; the directorship of the Continental Division was referred to a special committee with power to act. The administration of the secretarial office in New York and of the London and Paris headquarters is proceeding smoothly under the new arrangement, which has been in force since the first of March.

J. W. CUNLIFFE,
Secretary.

Report of the Committee on Franco-American Exchange of Scholarships and Fellowships

IT SEEMS appropriate that the report of this committee should now cover briefly the whole period during which the Franco-American Exchange has been conducted, in view of the recent great development of the responsibilities of the council in the field of international relations.

The exchange with which this committee has latterly been charged originated in a series of conferences held in Washington a few weeks after the establishment of the American Council on Education (which then bore the name of the Emergency Council on Education). Officers of the council, of the U. S. Bureau of Education, and the Association of American Colleges participated in the formulation of the original plan. Because of the limited resources of the council it recognized the Association of American Colleges as the agency best qualified to have charge of the exchange. The association therefore sent an appeal to a large number of American institutions for scholarships for French girls, each scholarship to cover the cost of room, board, tuition and fees. It was hoped that 100 scholarships might be offered. They were limited to girls because all able-bodied Frenchmen at that time were enrolled in the armed forces of the country. In response to this appeal 230 such scholarships were offered. Somewhat later a further appeal was made for scholarships for disabled French soldiers. Forty such opportunities were offered. The total number of women appointed to scholarships was 113. Of the 40 scholarships provided for disabled soldiers 34 were accepted.

The Association of American Colleges sent representatives abroad in 1918 and in 1919 to assist in the selection of the

women candidates. In 1919, 87 new women were added to the list of scholarship holders, and 95 of those appointed for the previous year continued for a second year at American institutions. Twenty-four men also held scholarships under this plan during that year.

By the year 1920 the office of the American Council on Education had been placed on a permanent footing, and on the motion of the Association of American Colleges the enterprise was turned over to the Council for administration. The transfer coincided with the beginning of the period of most acute financial pressure on the American colleges. Many of them found it impossible to continue to provide as many scholarships as they had previously offered, or, indeed, in some cases, any scholarships at all. From 1920 to 1922, inclusive, there was a sharp falling off in the number of such opportunities made available for French students. There has been a slight increase in the number of scholarships offered for the current academic year, however, and returns now coming in for the year 1924-25 indicate that the number will be still further increased. Altogether 549 scholarships have been held by French students at American institutions in the past six years under the plan for which your committee is responsible.

The French Government promptly took action to show its appreciation of the courtesies extended by American institutions. In the autumn of 1918 the French Ministry of Public Education and the Office National des Universites et Ecole francaises offered 20 scholarships to American women, undergraduates and graduates. Candidates for 18 of these were selected in the United States and accepted the scholarships. The provisions made by the French Government have been annually renewed and the number and variety of the opportunities annually increased. In the beginning the majority of the scholarships offered were in lycees, supplemented by two in the Ecole Normale Supérieure de Sevres and the Ecole Normale de St. Germain en Laye, respectively. Gradually university scholarships at Paris, Bordeaux, Lyon,

Toulouse, Nancy and Strasbourg have been included in the list of offerings. Most of the latter have been open to both men and women. For the current academic year 52 such opportunities were presented through this committee to American students, 25 of them representing scholarships at Sevres and normal schools and lycees, and 27 full scholarships or tuition scholarships in the universities mentioned. The number of American students taking advantage of these opportunities has increased steadily and now reaches a total of 162. Indeed, during the past two years more scholarships have been offered by the French institutions than by the American, and the number of American students who have gone to France under these auspices is greater than the number of French students coming to the United States. It is hoped and expected that the reviving interest of American colleges and universities in the exchange will shortly rectify this unfavorable balance of trade.

From the beginning of the enterprise a large part of the credit for its success has been due to the cooperation and material assistance of the Institute of International Education. The institute has assumed responsibility for arranging for transportation of both groups of scholarship holders, for their chaperonage and entertainment on each of their annual pilgrimages through New York. It has rendered a still more valuable service by assigning for the work of selection of candidates each year for the past four years Miss Virginia Newcomb, who was, until last summer, in charge of the institute's Student's Bureau. Miss Newcomb's wide knowledge of international educational conditions and of American higher institutions, together with her intimate acquaintance with France, has rendered her peculiarly fitted to perform this service. In the course of it she has won the confidence of the French educational authorities to such a degree that in her hands the task of selection has been carried on with the smallest possible loss of time and the maximum of efficiency. The committee congratulates itself and the council on the fact that it has once more secured

Miss Newcomb's services for the work of selection during the coming summer, in spite of the fact that she is now no longer a member of the staff of the institute.

The general plan of administration under which the committee has operated has been cumbersome and at times confusing. Because of the large number of cooperating agencies, and perhaps in deference to certain apparently conflicting interests, it has seemed desirable to parcel out various phases of the work, keeping the general control in the council's office through the chairman or secretary of the committee. It now appears to members of the committee probable that, in view of the larger development of the council's international relations, somewhat simpler arrangements may be made. The committee has not formally acted upon this matter; the chairman simply refers it to the director of the council for consideration.

The committee, however, has no doubts concerning the value of the exchange and the expediency of its continuance, and probably of its expansion. Doctor Champenois has placed in the chairman's hands a very impressive statement of the results of the undertaking from the point of view of the Office National des Universités et Ecoles françaises. He notes, for example, that, of the 398 different individuals coming from France on these scholarships, less than 4 per cent may be said to have failed, either in scholarship or in ability to adapt themselves to the conditions of American academic and social life. Eighty per cent of these French students have graduated from their American alma mater, 284 have returned to France, of whom the great majority have already joined or are ready to join the teaching profession. The French Government has given the holders of American scholarships full credit in France for their studies in American institutions, the years spent in American colleges or universities being counted as years of service from the point of view of promotion, salary, and pension. One hundred and fourteen French students have remained in the United States as instructors or teachers of French. It is

fair to assume that they are serving both the interests of their country and the interests of American higher education. Indeed the testimonials voluntarily offered concerning their efficiency as teachers indicate that they have added greatly to the strength of modern language teaching in this country.

Equally accurate records of the success of the American students who have held French scholarships or fellowships have unfortunately not been kept. It is possible to say, however, that the percentage of failures has been scarcely higher and that the great advantage derived from a year or more of study at French institutions has contributed notably to the equipment of the scholarship holders for teaching, the profession which most of them have embraced.

The contribution made through the agency of this exchange in promoting international good-will and understanding is more difficult to estimate. That it is real, no one is disposed to deny. A practical demonstration of it is represented in the formation, in Paris, of the Association of Former French Students in the United States, with an active and enthusiastic membership of approximately 300. The French official view of its importance is indicated by the fact that the French budget has borne an appropriation of 300,000 francs for this work since 1919, and that the directors and representatives of the office national have constantly assured the committee that they regard it as one of their most vital activities. It is the committee's judgment that never was it more worth while to cultivate international friendship by this indirect means.

S. P. CAPEN,
Chairman.

Report of the Committee on International Educational Relations

DURING the past year the only matter of importance that has come before the committee has been the completion of the report which was compiled at the request of the director of the Bureau des Renseignements Scientifiques de la Sorbonne and the secretary general de l'Extension Universitaire de la Societe des Amis de l'Universite de Paris.

It will perhaps be recalled that in last year's report it was stated that the director had inquired whether credit would be given American students pursuing work offered in the "Cours de Civilisation française" which is given each semester by professors of the University of Paris. Communications were sent out last spring to the deans of the more important graduate schools of the American universities, but only a few replies had been received at the time of the last annual meeting of the council.

After further correspondence, additional reports were received, in all, from twenty-four universities, so that it was possible, in January of the present year, to communicate to the representatives of the University of Paris a summary of the replies which had come in. In general the nature of these replies was favorable. However, there were certain limitations such as: first, the courses must bear a direct relation to the candidate's work for a higher degree; second, subject to the residence requirements of the particular university; third, subject to the examination requirements for the higher degree.

Special conditions in addition to the above, if any such were stated, were summarized in the case of each particular university.

In view of the recently perfected arrangements between the American University Union in Europe and the American Council on Education, by which a new committee to be known as the Committee of the American University Union has been organized and becomes a Committee of the American Council on Education, the existence of a separate Committee on International Educational Relations is no longer necessary. The committee therefore desires to express its approval of the merger and recommends that the original Committee of the Council on International Relations should be relieved from further service.

HERMAN V. AMES,
Chairman.

The Institute of International Education

DR. CAPEN'S report is a very good introduction to what I have to say. He spoke of the Franco-American scholarships. The first thing that I want to talk about is scholarships. The institute is now a constituent member of the council, and I think that it is a good thing for all members of the council to understand some of the things that one of its constituent agencies has undertaken to do.

One of the first important activities of the institute was to try to find out just how many scholarships and fellowships there were in this country for foreign students and in foreign countries for American students. A questionnaire was sent to all the institutions and the results published in a booklet giving all the scholarships and fellowships for foreign students in this country in all universities and colleges and also the converse. If you study this booklet you will be astonished at the liberality of American institutions in providing scholarships for foreign students, and also at the large number of scholarships that exist for American students abroad.

One striking example of this is the case of the stranded Russian students in this country. We have an admirable body of students who had partially or almost completely finished their courses in Russia but who, because of the revolutions there, were driven out and stranded, and who were anxious to complete their courses. As a result of the appeal by the institute to the various institutions in the country we were able to secure 45 scholarships, 15 of which covered tuition, board and lodging, and 32 of which covered tuition.

In addition, the institute established a Russian students' fund and got a large number of bankers and financiers in New York to become members of it, and to subscribe last

year \$40,000 for the help of these Russian students. This fund is not for scholarships and fellowships in the ordinary sense of the word. It is a revolving loan fund. We give monies to these Russian students to complete their education under the distinct understanding that it will be returned to us within a certain period. Moreover, we make them sign a statement that as soon as Russia is stabilized they will return to their own country and help in the reconstruction of their country with the education they have received in our country. Whether that latter thing will be so long deferred that we cannot expect them to undertake to do it I do not know. Certainly the former has not happened.

It will gratify you to know that three-fourths of these Russian students who graduated from American institutions this year graduated as A men, and we have received this year, the first year they have graduated, something like \$3,700 returned. Last year was the first year they earned money since they received their degrees. The respect and admiration and affection for the institute in the hearts of these young men I think cannot be overestimated.

These Russian scholarships are only a few of the scholarships that have been offered by American institutions to foreign students. We are administering six full scholarships of Czecho-Slovak students.

As a result of the money given us by the Carnegie Endowment we have been able to bring over four French women and one Belgian woman to receive education in library economy in this country. They have now gone back, and the first children's library in Belgium was opened in Brussels this year as a result of that Belgian woman receiving her education in that way.

Moreover, for two Mexican girls we have two scholarships covering tuition, board and lodging. For two Italian students we have scholarships in the same way, one for a boy and one for a girl, which we have just called the Eleanora Duse Scholarship of the Italy-America Society.

It will interest you to know that the antagonism of the

war has sufficiently passed away to make possible the establishment of a committee of nine members to bring about educational relations in higher education with Germany again. As a result there have been received already by that committee twelve scholarships covering tuition, board and lodging for German students in this country. They will probably come chiefly from Heidelberg, which has always been liberal, and has established an institute primarily for the study of Anglo-American history and institutions.

One of the difficult things about these foreign students has been arranging for their summer vacations. Most of the colleges are in session for only nine months. We have made applications to a great many summer camps and have been able to secure positions for many foreign students as leaders in these summer camps. Some camps have done more than that. Arthur Foster wrote me a few weeks ago he would issue three scholarships covering all expenses.

As Dr. Capen said when he was speaking of the Franco-American scholarships, the French Government, in grateful recognition of what the American colleges had done for French students, founded the twenty fellowships for French girls. That is only a part of the story. Last spring the minister of instruction in Prague notified us that Czecho-Slovakia had furnished six scholarships for American students at Prague covering tuition, board and lodging, with the qualification that these students had been making a study of the Slavic language, or Slavic history, or Slavic literature, or Slavic institutions. Today there are five splendid American students at Prague, three men and two girls, studying under the auspices of the University of Prague.

The same thing is true of Spain. We have two fellowships for Spanish girls in this country covering tuition, board and lodging. Recently the American Association for Field Fellowships in France transferred to the institute the administration of the income of their endowment fund of \$125,000 for sending American students to France to study there.

Only last week again Mrs. Willard Straight gave me a fund, the income of which is \$2,000 a year, for the purpose of sending an American student to China to study Chinese civilization. It is the first evidence of a desire to return something of the appreciation the Chinese have shown us in sending all their students to our country.

The institute now has more than 100 fellowships and scholarships to administer, and if I had the time to read to you the splendid letters that I receive from representative men all over the world about selected students who would be unquestionable assets to their country if they could come here and get the education that we could give them, I am sure you would all agree with me we must do all we can to help in this respect. For example, a recent letter from Hugh Gibson, our minister to Poland, tells of a student who had every qualification as to personality and scholarship to make him a great asset in the reconstruction of Poland if he might come here and secure some of the sound education that is given in American colleges. But we had no scholarship for him.

These requests for scholarships come from all over the world, and I am sure you agree with me we must make as strong an appeal as possible for this work.

The administration of scholarships for foreign students is not the end, by any means, of their connection with the institute. The institute has to help them in a variety of ways. Hundreds pass through our office both coming from Europe and going to Europe. They need information and advice. And the number that get information and advice by correspondence is, of course, much larger.

During the past year one of our chief activities was adjusting difficulties with the immigration laws. The number of students that we had to assist in securing admission under the immigration law, either by correspondence with their university, or by correspondence with Mr. Husband in Washington, or by personal visits to Mr. Husband at Washington, or by visits to Ellis Island, was 507. It has been

so large an undertaking that we have had to assign one clerk full time to this immigration service. The institute has been active in bringing pressure upon the immigration authorities and Congress to include in the pending immigration law suitable provisions for exempting bona fide students from the national quotas. Since lunch I called up Mr. Johnson, chairman of the House Committee, in charge of this bill, and he assured me that the conferees have agreed to include the provision exempting students from the national quota.

Another activity of the institute by which we have helped foreign students is the publication of a guide book for the foreign students in the United States. The second edition is now exhausted. It explains our system of higher education, as well as our curricula. The demand for such information is so great that we have issued a bibliography on the United States, telling students what books they ought to read and why they ought to read them before coming here. The first edition of this is nearly exhausted. It has proved useful not only to foreign students, but also to American teachers who want to find out what are the best books to read on the United States.

In like manner, for the benefit of American students going abroad, we have published three excellent bulletins, one on higher education in England, another on advantages of higher education in France, and another for Italy. New and enlarged editions of these are in preparation. By these we seek to facilitate the orientation of the foreign students in the United States and of the American students abroad.

Now a word about exchange teachers. I think there is no finer agency for international good-will than to have representative American professors go abroad and exude scholarship and Americanism at the same time before foreign university audiences, or the converse process of having distinguished professors from abroad circuited about in our universities. During the last year we have circuited 31 foreign professors of all nationalities through the universities

of this country. I might name them to show the advantages that come to our universities from visits of these fine representatives of foreign scholarships and culture.

The condition of teachers in the universities of Europe is most unfortunate. The result is that from practically every country in Europe the institute is receiving requests for positions in the United States. The number of teachers who applied to us for teaching positions in the United States during the past year was 270. This situation is almost hopeless. They do not understand our situation; they cannot accommodate themselves to it. Very often they do not know our language, so that only a few are able to secure positions. Nevertheless, 12 requests came to us from American colleges and universities, and of the 12 we were able to supply them with nine.

Just as there were 270 foreign professors who wanted positions in our country either as lecturers or as permanent members on staffs, there were 29 American professors who wanted positions abroad.

These professors were given letters of introduction to our representatives, or the right men to study under in the various countries of Europe.

The French Government during the past two years has again honored American teachers in a rather unique way. It has asked the institute to select ten representative American teachers to act as assistants in French lycées to give oral instruction in English. The government tries to assign these assistantships to lycées which are established in university towns, so that while the American teacher is having this fine advantage of teaching English in the French atmosphere he can carry on his studies in neighboring universities.

Another thing that we have been trying to do is to find out each year how many foreign students there are in the country, what their distribution is according to nationality, according to sex, and according to subjects studied. We have compiled and distributed tables which have been very helpful to the foreign ministers.

The institute is continually called on to make arrangements for international tours. It arranged last winter the program of the debates between the Oxford and American teams. Similarly, by planning their trips carefully, we have been able to save commissions from abroad wasting their time in going about the country seeing the same things. There have been commissions from Japan, China, Switzerland, Latin-America, etc., and usually they go to see the same things in the same places, everywhere. We have been able to help them make an itinerary by which they get the most advantage from this experience.

For the past three years we have taken an active part in organizing summer student tours, characterized not by sight-seeing, but by educational activity under college teachers. We notify the educational authorities in the other countries, and they are everywhere received with enthusiasm, and circuited about so as to make the best of their opportunities. This project has been so successful that several institutions have arranged similar student tours themselves, as, for example, the New York University tour, which is not only organized for educational purposes, but even for granting college credit.

Another similar activity of ours is arranging conferences on subjects of international importance. Only yesterday such a conference was held in New York to consider Mexican educational conditions. As a result we have been assured of the necessary support to send an education survey commission to Mexico at the cost of the Mexican Government. Such a survey will be very helpful both to Mexico and to the United States. Some of you remember the conference with reference to China, which resulted in the gathering of information which has been very helpful to the committees on admission in our institutions when considering Chinese students.

The stimulation of foreign schools to meet the needs of American students who want to study abroad is another of our activities. It was very largely at the suggestion of

the institute that the summer session of the University of Mexico was opened two years ago. Our teachers of Spanish need language training in a Spanish-speaking country. More than 500 teachers of Spanish attended the session there last year. Similarly, we persuaded the University of Rome to open its first session last summer. We encouraged the Swiss to open that very fine school on international relations at the University of Geneva, which was attended by some 21 American students last year, and in which the teachers are almost all from the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

It is difficult to overemphasize the importance of this work of international education. If international good-will is to be developed it must come through education, and through education of an international character. Much can be done to this end by close cooperation between the Institute of International Education, the American Council on Education, and the American University Union in Europe. We are now entering into closer cooperation. I am sure that the great advances in international educational relations are sure to follow in the near future.

S. P. DUGGAN,
Director.

Report of the Committee on Foreign Study and Travel

IN OCTOBER, 1923, the Hon. Marcus H. Marks, a philanthropist and former president of the Borough of Manhattan, New York, suggested that some comprehensive plan should be developed which would stimulate foreign travel and study in European institutions by American students, the end being broader education for the individual and more complete understanding among nations. At the invitation of the Association of Urban Universities, he addressed their members at the meeting held in Buffalo in November. The association passed a resolution endorsing the general idea and agreeing to support the movement if it were administered by the American Council on Education.

Mr. Marks promptly proposed to the Executive Committee of the council that it undertake the organization and administration of a student exchange of the sort he had in mind, if he should raise funds sufficient to finance it. The Executive Committee, by correspondence in November, accepted his proposal, and at its New York meeting in December the round-robin action was ratified.

Furthermore, the Association of American Colleges, at its December meeting in New York, endorsed the proposal, on the understanding that the American Council on Education should administer the work. Mr. Marks then invited Gen. Coleman DuPont to be the chairman of a committee to support the movement. General DuPont gave a luncheon at the Bankers Club on January 17, 1924, at which were present: Gen. Coleman DuPont, Frank A. Vanderlip, Felix Warburg, I. M. Stettinheim, Lee Kohns, Stephen P. Duggan, M. Champenois, President Walter Hüllihen of Delaware University, Col. Arthur Woods, Sidney Bloomenthal, Marcus M. Marks and Dean Frederick B. Robinson. At this

meeting all agreed that much good would come out of an extensive system of travel and study if such a system could be practically devised. In discussing details, especial stress was placed upon the importance of making arrangements whereby American institutions would give credit for studies pursued during the summer months in Europe. Such an arrangement, it was thought, would have a broadening educational influence and also save time devoted to college studies. It was also suggested that some students might arrange for a full year abroad, in lieu of the junior year in college at home, after the plan successfully followed by the University of Delaware.

At the meeting it was pointed out that no one college or university could very well organize and successfully coordinate courses which would be credited by many institutions throughout the country. Some present believed that no practical plan for general crediting could be devised. But others were of the opinion that the American Council on Education was the one organization possessing the confidence of most institutions and educational agencies throughout the country and that it could successfully establish, supervise and certify courses of European study which would be generally accepted.

The gentlemen present appropriated a sum of \$10,000 to be used by the American Council on Education to make a preliminary investigation of the possibilities. Furthermore, a sub-committee to cooperate with the council and supervise the expenditure of the \$10,000 was appointed as follows: Frank A. Vanderlip, chairman; Gen. Coleman DuPont, vice-chairman; Felix Warburg, treasurer; Dean Frederick B. Robinson, secretary; Dr. Stephen P. Duggan; President Walter Hüllihen.

On January 23 this sub-committee met at the Metropolitan Club. Numerous letters and telegrams from colleges and universities in various sections of the country were discussed. These communications indicated clearly that nearly forty representative institutions enthusiastically endorsed the

project and had complete confidence in the council as the proper body to carry on the work and to vouch for its educational value. After discussing the whole situation, the sub-committee passed resolutions as follows:

1. That the replies from American institutions of higher learning throughout the country are gratifying and reassuring as to the cooperation expected and as to the guarantee of credit.

2. That the American Council on Education be authorized to begin in Great Britain and Ireland and formulate a plan to facilitate the placing of American undergraduates for accredited work in institutions of learning, in courses requiring a year or less residence.

It was also resolved that an appropriate sum of money be drawn from the \$10,000 to initiate this work.

3. That sums of money out of the \$10,000 be paid to the American Council on Education on the authority of the chairman.

4. That Dr. C. R. Mann be added to the committee as a member.

5. That the American Council limit its canvass among American institutions to accredited colleges on the list of approved institutions which was promulgated by the council.

6. That the American Council formulate a program of study tours on the continent for American students under American supervision, without relation to college credit.

It was the consensus of opinion that all divergent views had been reconciled and that the committee had made an excellent beginning on what may develop into a very comprehensive enterprise.

The subcommittee then authorized President Aydelotte, of Swarthmore College, to make a survey, in accordance with its resolutions, in Great Britain. He did so promptly and made his report at the second meeting of the subcommittee, which was held on April 18 in New York. His report is as follows:

Before I left for England I had a conference with Dr. Mann in which he asked me to investigate and report on the general question as to whether a system of exchange of university students of about junior grade would work between English and American universities without loss of time to the students in getting their degrees. He wished me particularly to ascertain whether American students who have completed their sophomore year could

enter the English universities profitably for one year's study, whether the English universities would provide such students with proper supervision, and whether they would give certificates of work done which could be used as a basis of obtaining credit in American institutions. And further, he asked me to obtain information as to courses of study, time schedules, living costs and living conditions, and to bring catalogues and bulletins from the various English universities for reference in his office.

During the time that I was in England I had the opportunity of talking over the whole plan with a number of representatives of different English universities and with Dr. Alexander Hill, director of the Universities Bureau of the British Empire. I had, furthermore, the opportunity on March 22 of laying the whole plan before the Standing Committee of Vice-Chancellors of the University Bureau of the British Empire and of obtaining the results of their very careful discussion of the plan.

In all of these discussions I was assured that the universities of Great Britain would undertake to cooperate cordially with any feasible plan for the exchange of students between the two countries. It was quite clear that British opinion was on the whole disposed to favor the migration of graduate rather than of undergraduate students from one country to another. The representatives of universities assured me, however, that there would be no difficulties about the admission of undergraduate students from American universities who had completed two years of work at home and who were returning to take their degree from their own universities. Since these students would not be candidates for degrees in England, it would be possible for English universities to admit them to a status corresponding somewhat to that of special students in American universities, allowing them to attend practically any lectures and to do practically any work for which their previous training had prepared them.

The English universities would be prepared to provide proper supervision for these students and to give them some kind of certificate of the work they had done which could be used as a basis of obtaining credit in their American universities, though it was agreed that no mechanical equivalents in hours would be possible.

The English university year corresponds roughly to the American, beginning the latter part of September or the early part of October and ending the latter part of June or early part of July.

Expenses at the provincial universities would amount to about £150 a year plus the cost of traveling and vacations. A scholarship of £300 would probably be sufficient for a year at one of the provincial universities, though on this sum a scholar might expect

to draw to some extent on his own resources unless he were prepared to live with the utmost economy. Information concerning living conditions, lectures, examinations, etc., is contained in the bulletins and programs of the various universities which I am sending to Dr. Mann's office.

It was the feeling of all my advisers in England that while it would be feasible to receive American undergraduates at the English universities for one year, it had not yet been demonstrated that English undergraduates of the same status could profitably come out to the United States for one year's study. Such a migration for them would probably mean the loss of one year's time in taking their degrees. There was, however, a disposition to wait until the experience of the Davison Scholars (some of whom are undergraduates) could be ascertained before pronouncing finally on this aspect of the question. I think, however, that I should not do justice to English opinion unless I emphasize the fact that they feel that such migrations are more profitable in the case of postgraduate than in the case of undergraduate students.

In the discussion which followed this report, many interesting details were brought out. President Aydelotte referred to particular advantages available in certain universities.¹ All were of the opinion, from the description given of the situation in Great Britain, that students in the junior year who had completed the required work of the first two years, could very well find excellent concentration groups or elective groups suited to their needs in the different British institutions. It was further decided that work for American students could easily be outlined and supervised by the representative of the American Council on Education who is in charge of the Union office in London. It was generally agreed that some digest of the wealth of literature brought back by President Aydelotte could be made and an announcement of scholarship opportunities sent to institutions throughout the country.

The following resolutions were also passed.

I. It was the sense of the committee that President Aydelotte's report is so satisfactory that no time should be lost in sending

¹As in engineering, economics, pre-medical, physics, philosophy, classics courses, etc.

the first group of students under the auspices of the Committee to British institutions.

II. That while the ultimate object of the committee should be to encourage students to study abroad at their own expense, it is necessary at first to popularize the movement by offering a limited number of scholarships; and that at present the committee should propose to the whole group that from twelve to sixteen scholarships of about £300 a year should be established with an annual budget of \$25,000 for five years.

III. That the American Council be requested to set up in its office at Washington an administrative bureau to conduct the practical work connected with selecting and sending American students abroad; and that the \$9,000 now in the hands of the chairman be deposited with the American Council on Education to be drawn upon to maintain the bureau; it being understood that a first-grade man be engaged for the work and that his salary of somewhere between \$6,000 and \$8,000 be paid, half out of appropriations made by this committee and half out of other funds to be secured by the American Council on Education.

IV. That the secretary be directed to present a report of the committee to date at the next meeting of the American Council on Education in Washington, D. C., on May 2.

F. B. ROBINSON,
Secretary.

Report of the Committee on Standards

IN ACCORDANCE with the instructions at the last meeting, the committee has reconsidered the statement of standards of junior colleges and teacher training institutions and presents them in the following form with the recommendation that they now be finally approved by the American Council on Education.

STANDARDS AND PRINCIPLES FOR ACCREDITING JUNIOR COLLEGES

Introduction

The following statement of standards for junior colleges is made with clear recognition of the fact that organizations so designated are still in their experimental stage both as to the type of work to be included and as to the correlation of such work with that of the high school on one hand and with that of standard colleges and technological and professional schools on the other. The definition is based on the assumption that the junior college is an integral part of a large system and that its standards and courses should facilitate interchange of students and credits between the junior colleges and other higher educational institutions.

Definition

The junior college is an institution of higher education which gives two years of work equivalent in prerequisites, scope, and thoroughness to the work done in the first two years of a college as defined elsewhere by the American Council on Education.

Admission of Students

1. The requirement for admission should be the satisfactory completion of a four-year course of study in a secondary school approved by a recognized accrediting agency or the equivalent of such a course of study. The

major portion of the secondary school course of study accepted for admission should be definitely correlated with the curriculum to which the student is admitted.

Graduation Requirements

2. Requirements for graduation should be based on the satisfactory completion of 30 year-hours or 60 semester hours of work corresponding in grade to that given in the freshman and sophomore years of standard colleges and universities. In addition to the above quantitative requirements each institution should adopt qualitative standards suited to its individual conditions.

Faculty

3. Members of the teaching staff in regular charge of classes should have a baccalaureate degree and should have had not less than one year of graduate work in a recognized graduate school; in all cases efficiency in teaching, as well as the amount of graduate work, should be taken into account.

4. Teaching schedules exceeding 16 hours per week per instructor or classes (exclusive of lectures) of more than 30 students should be interpreted as endangering educational efficiency.

Curricula

5. The curricula should provide both for breadth of study and for concentration and should have justifiable relations to the resources of the institution. The number of departments and the size of the faculty should be increased with the development of varied curricula and the growth of the student body.

Enrollment

6. No junior college should be accredited unless it has a registration of not less than 50 students.

Income

7. The minimum annual operating income for the two years of junior college work should be \$20,000, of which

not less than \$10,000 should be derived from stable sources other than students, such as public support or permanent endowments. Increase in faculty, student body, and scope of instruction should be accompanied by increase of income from such stable sources. The financial status of each junior college should be judged in relation to its educational program.

Buildings and Equipment

8. The material equipment and upkeep of a junior college, including its buildings, lands, laboratories, apparatus, and libraries, and their efficient operation in relation to its educational program should also be considered when judging the institution.

Inspection

9. No junior college should be accredited until it has been inspected and reported upon by an agent or agents regularly appointed by the accrediting organization.

STANDARDS AND PRINCIPLES FOR ACCREDITING NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

Definition

Normal schools or teachers' colleges are institutions of higher education with two-year, three-year, or four-year curricula designed to afford such general and technical education as will fit students to teach in elementary and secondary schools.

Admission of Students

1. The requirement for admission should be the satisfactory completion of a four-year course of study in a secondary school approved by a recognized accrediting agency or the equivalent of such a course of study.

Graduation Requirements

2. The minimum requirement for a diploma should be the satisfactory completion of 60 semester hours of credit (or the equivalent in term hours, quarter hours, points,

majors or courses), and the minimum requirement for graduation with the baccalaureate degree the satisfactory completion of 120 semester hours of credit (or the equivalent in term hours, points, majors or courses).

Enrollment

3. Each curriculum leading to a diploma or degree should be duly unified, recognized separately and only if the following conditions are met:

(a) Two-year curricula leading to diplomas should have a minimum enrollment of 80 students fully matriculated according to the provisions of standard 1 above.

(b) Four-year curricula leading to baccalaureate degrees should have a minimum enrollment of 100 students fully matriculated according to the provisions of standard 1 above, with not fewer than 25 in the junior and senior years, exclusive of any other students.

Faculty

4. The size of faculty should bear a definite relation to the program of the institution, the number of students, and the number of courses offered. With the growth of the student body, the number of full-time teachers should be correspondingly increased. Members of the teaching staff in regular and permanent charge of classes (except teachers of special subjects in elementary schools, including music, drawing, and manual training, and assistants in the training school) should have a bachelor's degree from a recognized institution of higher education and should have had not less than one year of graduate work in a graduate school, or special training supplemented by experience, preferably of at least three years. The training of the head of a department should be, (a) in a two-year institution, that required for a master's degree; and (b), in an institution offering four-year curricula, the doctor's degree, or the equivalent as represented by a corresponding professional or technical training. In all cases efficiency of teaching as well as the amount of graduate work should be taken into account. A degree-giving institution should be judged in large part by

the ratio which the number of persons of professorial rank with sound training, scholarly achievement, and successful experience as teachers bears to the total number of the teaching staff. (In administering this standard accrediting agencies would not ordinarily expect to make it retroactive.)

A teaching schedule exceeding 16 hours per week per instructor or classes, exclusive of those for lectures, of more than 30 students should be interpreted as endangering educational efficiency.

Income

5. The minimum annual operating income for an accredited normal school or teachers college, exclusive of payment of interest, annuities, etc., should be (a) for institutions offering two-year curricula only, not less than \$25,000; and (b) for institutions offering three-year and four-year curricula, not less than \$50,000. At least one-half of this operating income should be derived from stable sources, other than students' fees. Increase in faculty, student body and scope of instruction should be accompanied by increase in income from endowment. The financial status of each normal school or teachers' college should be judged in relation to its educational program.

Buildings and Equipment

6. The material equipment and upkeep of a normal school or teachers' college, including its buildings, lands, laboratories, apparatus, and libraries, and their efficient operation in relation to its educational program, should also be considered when judging the institution.

A normal school or teachers' college should have a live, well-distributed, professionally administered library bearing specifically upon the subjects taught, and a definite annual appropriation for the purchase of new books. Institutions offering four-year curricula should have at least eight thousand volumes, exclusive of public documents, in such a library.

Practice Teaching and Observation

7. In order to make practice teaching and observation

the unifying and dominant characteristics of the curricula of normal schools and teachers' colleges, adequate provision should be made as to the number of pupils enrolled in the training department, the number and preparation of the teachers in the training department, and the amount of practice teaching and observation required of each candidate for graduation.

Inspection

8. No normal school or teachers' college should be accredited until it has been inspected and reported upon by an agent or agents regularly appointed by the accrediting organization.

Teacher Training in Universities and Colleges

9. The accrediting of standard colleges and universities as institutions for the technical training of teachers should be based upon meeting the following minimum requirements, in addition to compliance with the requirements for standard colleges and universities as to admission, graduation, training and schedule of faculty, and size of classes:

(a) At least one full-time professor devoting himself exclusively to courses in education.

(b) Adequate facilities for practice teaching and observation according to the principles suggested in paragraph 7.

(c) Adequate provision in the library for technical books and periodicals on education.

(d) Such a formulated curriculum or announcement of courses in education as will duly emphasize the technical character of the preparation for teaching.

The following motions were passed and referred to the Council for consideration:

The new Committee on Standards suggests for the consideration of the American Council on Education the expansion of the present functions of the committee to include a continuing inquiry regarding the results arising from the progressive adoption and enforcement of the standards approved by the council.

A subcommittee of the Committee on Standards was appointed to study special methods of measuring achievement for the purpose of establishing the capacity of students as a basis for the award of credits toward admissions, degrees, and certificates. In order to facilitate the work of this subcommittee,

It was voted that the committee recommends to the American Council on Education that it open negotiations with agencies working in the field of objective educational measurements looking toward a coordination of effort in this field.

It was voted that the committee recommends to the American Council on Education that the three reports on the standards of colleges, junior colleges, and teacher training institutions be issued as a special pamphlet and widely distributed to a special list to be furnished by this committee.

J. H. KIRKLAND, *Chairman*.

C. R. MANN, *Secretary*.

Officers of the American Council on Education, 1924-25

Chairman: Professor H. W. Tyler, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, representing American Association of University Professors.

First Vice-Chairman: Rt. Rev. E. A. Pace, Catholic University of America, representing Catholic Educational Association.

Second Vice-Chairman: President R. L. Wilbur, Stanford University, representing Association of American Universities.

Secretary: President R. M. Hughes, Miami University, representing National Association of State Universities.

Treasurer: Mr. Corcoran Thom, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Director: Dr. C. R. Mann.

Assistant Director: Mr. David A. Robertson.

Executive Committee: The Chairman, the Secretary, the Director. For 1 year—Dean F. B. Robinson, College of the City of New York, representing Association of Urban Universities; President Wm. B. Owen, Chicago Normal College, representing National Education Association. For 2 years—Prof. C. J. Tilden, Yale University, representing Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education; Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes, Lenox, Mass., representing Institute of International Education. For 3 years—Chancellor S. P. Capen, University of Buffalo, representing Association of American Colleges; Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Barnard College, representing American Association of University Women.

CONSTITUENT MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES FOR THE YEAR 1924-25

1. ASSOCIATION OF LAND GRANT COLLEGES:

President R. A. Pearson, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa.

President Wm. J. Kerr, Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oreg.

President K. L. Butterfield, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing, Mich.

2. COUNCIL OF CHURCH BOARDS OF EDUCATION:

Dr. A. W. Harris, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Dr. H. O. Pritchard, 222 Downey Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.

Dr. R. L. Kelly, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

3. COUNCIL ON MEDICAL EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION:
Surgeon General M. W. Ireland, War Department, Washington, D. C.
Dr. Wm. Pepper, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Dr. N. P. Colwell, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.
4. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE UNIVERSITIES:
Pres. P. L. Campbell, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.
Pres. R. M. Hughes, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
Pres. David Kinley, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
5. ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES:
Chancellor James H. Kirkland, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
Chancellor Samuel P. Capen, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
President John H. MacCracken, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
6. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES:
President D. B. Waldo, Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.
President W. A. Brandenburg, State Normal College, Pittsburgh, Kansas.
President E. L. Hendricks, Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.
7. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS:
Professor H. W. Tyler, Mass. Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.
Professor J. V. Denney, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
Professor Katharine J. Gallagher, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.
8. CATHOLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:
Rt. Rev. Thos. J. Shahan, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
Rt. Rev. Edw. A. Pace, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
Rev. P. L. McCormick, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
9. ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES:
Dean Herman V. Ames, Univ. of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
President R. L. Wilbur, Stanford University, Stanford University, Calif.
President L. D. Coffman, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
10. SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION:
Dean F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Professor Hugh Miller, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
Professor C. J. Tilden, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:
 Dr. George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University,
 New York City.
 Commissioner Payson Smith, Department of Education, Boston,
 Mass.
 Miss Olive M. Jones, 187 Broome Street, New York City.
12. ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES:
 President Parke R. Kolbe, Municipal University of Akron,
 Akron, Ohio.
 Mr. F. W. Shipley, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
 Dean F. B. Robinson, College of the City of New York, New
 York City.
13. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN:
 Miss Virginia Gildersleeve, Barnard College, New York City.
 Mrs. Frances F. Bernard, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.
 Miss Mina Kerr, 1634 Eye Street N.W., Washington, D. C.
14. NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY
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 (Delegates not yet named)
15. INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION:
 Dr. H. S. Pritchett, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement
 of Teaching, New York City.
 Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes, Lenox, Mass.
 Dr. S. P. Duggan, Institute of International Education, New
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Oklahoma, University of

PENNSYLVANIA:

Bryn Mawr College
Carnegie Inst. of Technology

PENNSYLVANIA—*Continued.*

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Pennsylvania, University of
Pittsburgh, University of
Seton Hill College
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Swarthmore College
Temple University
Villanova College
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Winthrop College

SOUTH DAKOTA:

Huron College
South Dakota, University of

TENNESSEE:

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Vanderbilt University

TEXAS:

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Texas, University of

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Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Virginia, University of
Washington and Lee University

WISCONSIN:

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Campion College
Lawrence College
Marquette University
Milwaukee-Downer College
Wisconsin, University of

WYOMING:

Wyoming, University of

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Annual Report of the Director of the Continental Division of the American University Union

NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS

UNLESS it devoted to the effort an undue part of the time of its clerical personnel, as at present constituted, the Continental Division could not offer detailed and entirely satisfactory statistics on the number and distribution—by subjects and by institutions—of American students on the Continent. However, the results arrived at with our limited resources indicate clearly, in comparison with the figures for former years, that more and more Americans are coming to France to study. The totals as given in the annual reports for 1921-22, 1922-23, were, respectively, 1,348 and 1,392. During the year from March to March, 1923-24, our statistics reveal the surprising total of 3,002 Americans registered in the records of the Union or on the rolls of educational institutions for a study period of at least two months in France. Doubtless an appreciable fraction of this apparently striking increase is due to the fact that the Union is improving its method of collecting data, but after all due allowance is made, the notably large number of Americans who come to France for study is a vigorous reminder both of the Union's opportunities and of its responsibilities.

This considerable body of students falls into several natural groups:

Men.....	1,399
Women.....	1,603
Total number registered in educational institutions.....	2,201
Number enrolled in secondary schools.....	383
Number enrolled in higher institutions of all kinds.....	1,818

Number enrolled in schools of art, music, etc.....	379
Number enrolled in academic and professional courses.....	1,439
Alliance Française.....	454
University of Paris:	
Letters (including registrations in the special schools for foreigners: Cours de Civilisation Française, 242; École de Préparation de Professeurs, 65).....	403
Law.....	14
Medicine.....	7
Science.....	5
	<hr/> 429
Enrollment in other academic institutions in Paris (Ecole des Sciences Politiques, Institut des Hautes Etudes Interna- tionales, Ecole de Guerre).....	132
Enrollment in Provincial Universities (including Cours de Vacances).....	434
Grenoble.....	202
Poitiers.....	56
Dijon.....	39
Toulouse.....	34
Strasbourg.....	27
Bordeaux.....	17
Besançon.....	16
Nancy.....	16
Montpellier.....	14
Clermont.....	7
Lyon.....	4
Caen.....	1
Alger.....	1

Of the students enrolled for the regular courses in the University of Paris (about 120 in number), 31 announced their candidacy for the doctorate (5 for the Doctorat-ès-Lettres). There were 15 candidates for the doctorate among those registered in other universities.

Of the grand total of 3,002, there were 791 about whose studies the Union has no exact knowledge, though many of these were known to be pursuing independent studies of an elementary or an advanced nature.

It is true that all the figures given above must be taken with some reserve, for many students enroll in two or three institutions, and those who follow the courses of such institu-

tions as the Collège de France are not necessarily enrolled anywhere. However the grand total rather understates than overstates the actual situation, for an appreciable number of institutions in which Americans were registered did not reply to the Union's request for information.

Certain inferences may be drawn from these statistics. About one fifth of the Americans included in the Union's figures pursue work in the various branches of art, but by far the largest group is interested in the French language and literature. Most members of this group—probably three-fourths—enroll in the special courses arranged for foreigners by the various universities, courses which are largely undergraduate in character both as to content and to method. The others follow regular university instruction (*cours fermés, cours réservés*) given to French applicants for the professional titles required for teaching positions in French schools. Nearly all the members of this large group—whether enrolled in the special or in the regular courses—were actual or prospective teachers of French. The larger number of registrations in the special courses is due, in part, to the fact that these are available in summer, when American teachers are free to cross the ocean, and, in part, to the fact that the divisions of such courses are grouped to form a rather definite whole, whereas most Americans who are not already broken in to independent study, find it difficult to arrange a satisfactory program from the regular French university courses.

While it is desirable that the number of such persons attending the special courses shall grow, for no organized sojourn in France can fail to be helpful to teachers of French, the retiring Director entertains the earnest hope that American academic authorities, especially heads of Romance departments, will give more personal attention to the projects of students who definitely plan to do advanced work abroad in Romance languages and literatures. If such persons come to Europe with suitable training and a sufficiently definite conception of the task, their stay will be of great value to

themselves and to American scholarship. Otherwise they may easily fail to reap substantial benefit from their opportunities for foreign study.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE DIRECTOR

In this connection the retiring Director ventures to suggest that one of the responsibilities imposed on the Director by the presence of such a considerable number of American students in France is to establish more effective contacts with them as individuals and as groups than he has done during his term of office. He considers that the Director and his associate must perform the double function of diplomatic representatives of American education and of deans of American students in France. Their obligations in the former rôle are already fairly well determined; what the Director makes of the latter function is a wholly individual question. If, however, the number of cases of waste effort by American students is to be reduced, it can be done only by an effort on the part of a competent American specialist to know the difficulties that inevitably appear in a transfer from the American to the French system, and to arrive at a solution for them in each individual case. This would involve a deliberate attempt by the Director early in the academic year to meet, at least, all students planning to do graduate work, and to give those who need it definite information on the basis of which they may select institutions, instructors, and courses. Since, as was indicated above, most Americans take studies in French language and literature, and since the Director is himself usually a specialist in this field, the acquisition of the necessary information and the establishment of the necessary contacts will constitute no formidable nor irksome task.

A serious and effective effort in this direction is already being made by the Union and has been made since its establishment on a peace basis, but the retiring Director is aware that he has contributed too little to what is, in his judgment, a fundamental task. This may be due in part to the fact

that the terms of his appointment involved a limited office-hour schedule, but he believes that he might have utilized more effectively in the interest of the students this limited number of hours if he had, from the beginning, understood the conditions by which most of them are confronted upon their arrival in France to study.

AMERICAN STUDENTS' ASSOCIATION

It is appropriate in this connection to call attention to the possibilities of mutually profitable cooperation of the Union with the American Students' Association, an organization founded during the academic year now closing, of which all American students may become members. Because of its newness and because of the difficulties rising from the changing character of the student group—few remain in Paris for more than a year and the majority are here for an even shorter time—it is too soon to speak of its success or failure. There is no doubt, however, that such an organization could be extremely useful in giving a sort of cohesion to the student body, in providing a medium through which American students may, for example, take action and express themselves in matters of interest to the group, may formally and informally give to the officers of the Union and to new students useful information, and arrange by groups for contacts with students of other nationalities and with professors in the various French institutions most frequented by Americans. The value of such activities is obvious. A beginning has been made. The next year or two will show whether the life of the organization can be developed and invigorated by skilful cooperation between the more enterprising students and the officers of the Union.

PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITIES

The beginnings have been made of a table of the specialists and important resources of the universities outside of Paris, which, when completed, will be of great service in counseling advanced American students. The numerous advantages of a study period spent in such institutions are obvious to any-

one aware of the overcrowded conditions in many of the courses in Paris (especially in the Faculty of Letters) in which Americans are most apt to be interested, of the tense-ness of the life imposed on professors in Paris by the fact of being in a great intellectual and metropolitan center, and of the difficulties of the housing situation. French authorities in Paris and the Union make an effective effort to lessen these difficulties, but certain physical factors dominate the situation. The retiring Director recommends, therefore, to his successors the importance of enlarging and completing in the various fields this body of information, and of calling very definitely to the attention of advanced students the excellent opportunities for directed study and for contacts with representative French life that are offered in certain provincial university centers.

He also takes the liberty of referring to a previous suggestion regarding the advisability of personal contacts between the Union and provincial universities. He considers that each Director should visit four or five of those that offer most attractions to American students, should make the acquaintance of those in residence and of the professors who direct their studies. These need not be visits of ceremony, but merely of the representative of American institutions making informal friendly calls on the student groups for which in his official capacity he is in a certain sense responsible.

THE FRENCH SECONDARY CURRICULUM

The annual report for 1922-23 set forth at some length the nature of the changes in the French secondary curriculum instituted by M. Léon Bérard, Minister of Public Instruction in the Poincaré Cabinet. The elections of May 11, 1924, brought into power another party with different views on education. One cannot yet say just what modification will be made in the Bérard program. It is highly probable, however, that other principles will prevail; that Latin and Greek will no longer be obligatory as they were in the Bérard plan, that an effort will be made to work out a new program

based on a full recognition of the value of the "humanités modernes," and to make the secondary system more democratic by doing away with certain obstacles that now exist to the passage by pupils from the primary to the secondary schools.

This latter element has no bearing on the American problem except in its general connection with a democratisation of educational opportunity. The question of "Modern Humanities," however, which was so ably discussed in the British Report of 1919 on Modern Studies, is of great interest to educators everywhere. As the French have a peculiar historical and cultural ground for thinking well of the educative values of classical studies, a fresh examination by them of the solidity of a culture based on modern studies, including, of course, the native language and literature, cannot fail to interest all who deal with curricula, whether in the American school or in the college.

FOREIGN STUDY PROJECTS

The officers of the Union have been watching with much interest the operation of the Foreign Study Plan of the University of Delaware, directed in Paris by Mr. Raymond W. Kirkbride of that institution. As this project was presented at some length in the EDUCATIONAL RECORD for 1924 by President Hullihen, it is sufficient to say here that the first year's experiment has been conducted with apparent success. Mr. Kirkbride has watched with the utmost solicitude over the eight carefully selected Junior men in his charge, their expenditures, their amusements, and their studies, and, for his part, is confident that the year of French culture, which they have taken in place of a year at home, does not leave them relatively poorer intellectually than their classmates, whom they will join in the autumn for the senior year at Delaware University.

As a preface to their work in France, this group attended the summer course of the University of Nancy in 1923, where the new group for 1924-25 is now following in their steps, and pursued during the winter the studies of the Cours de

Civilisation Française of the University of Paris. In addition they took systematic private lessons in French throughout their stay. The subjects studied were not, to be sure, the same as those they would have had in the college curriculum at home, and it is necessary to reserve judgment on the plan in general. It is, however, being carried out with prudence and a keen sense of the realities involved, and it would be exceedingly interesting if other American colleges would examine what is being done and would join in giving the project a thorough testing.

It is in the light of this experiment and probably along the same general lines that the plan for international student exchange, proposed by the committee for which Mr. Marcus M. Marks of New York is the spokesman (see EDUCATIONAL RECORD, January, 1924), is to be examined before it can be put into operation. French university authorities are most sympathetic to plans for student exchange. France is probably doing more in this direction now than any other country. They ask only for the right kind of endorsements, educational and financial. Obviously the successful development of all such projects depends primarily upon the attitude taken toward them by those who decide the educational policies of American colleges.

Another interesting idea is represented by the study group of graduate students directed by Prof. Albert Méras, of Teachers' College of Columbia University, which spent the spring semester in following the courses of the *Ecole de Préparation des Professeurs de Français à l'Etranger*, organized by the University of Paris. The stay in France is to form an integral part of the work of the members of the group toward the Master's degree at Columbia. The students manifested great interest in their undertaking and it is to be hoped that Professor Méras will soon find an opportunity to make known his view of the progress of the experiment.

SERVICE ON COMMITTEES

The retiring Director was invited by the secretary of the

Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations to attend its meeting in Paris, December 3 to 7, inclusive, in view, particularly, of a plan to establish at Geneva an International University Information Bureau. In the absence of Professor Millikan, American member of the committee, Mr. Waldo G. Leland and the Director of the Union took his place, and, upon the constitution of an administrative council to direct the International Information Bureau and to cooperate with the secretary of the committee in editing a quarterly bulletin, the Director was appointed by the chairman, Professor Bergson, to represent the universities of English-speaking countries. In consequence of this, the retiring Director attended two meetings of the council in Geneva, took part in securing material for the bulletin, of which three issues have now appeared, and attended, as substitute for Professor Millikan, a meeting of the University Sub-committee in Brussels. He considers this one of the most interesting and enlightening episodes of his stay in Europe, and hopes that his successor, if the presence of an American on the Council is still desired, will find it no less stimulating.

In January, the retiring Director was asked to represent his American colleagues at the meeting of the "Committee on a Dictionary of Medieval Latin" under the auspices of the *Union Académique Internationale*, and made a report to Dean Haskins of Harvard and to Professor Beeson of Chicago.

He also served, *ex-officio*, on the Paris American Committee for the Olympic Games and on the Overseas Memorial Day Committee; attended, on behalf of the American Association of University Professors, a meeting of the International Federation of Intellectual Workers; and, at the request of Mr. H. M. Lydenberg of the New York Public Library, chairman of a committee of the American Library Association, cooperated in securing information concerning the pressing needs of French university libraries in regard to American scholarly publications. He is delighted to report

that an allotment of about \$4,000 for this purpose has been made by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation, the distribution of which is in the hands of the Director of the American Library in Paris.

THE NEW HOME OF THE UNION

The Union has had a pleasant year in its new quarters, the attractiveness of which often give rise to congratulations from visitors. The building, owned by the Carnegie Peace Foundation, has real architectural distinction, and the two main reception rooms, though not yet appropriately furnished, are pleasing and comfortable. The Assistant Director has secured from several American artists the loan of a number of paintings and etchings that form a small exhibition of contemporary artistic endeavor and decorate the rooms in pleasing fashion. Mr. Paul Bartlett, the well-known sculptor, presented the Union with a reduced cast of his famous statue of Lafayette.

The receptions usually given by the Union—to French professors and educational authorities, to the rectors of French universities, to the French and American friends of the Union, including students, to those who attended the series of *causeries* took place, therefore, in an agreeable sitting that seemed to give pleasure to our guests. In addition the privilege of using the lecture hall of the building for *causeries*, and the permission which was finally obtained, to use regularly the main stairway of the building, offer grounds for satisfaction.

The Union expects to utilize a portion of a gift made during the year to the Paris Division in order to provide a few more attractive pieces of furniture for the reception rooms, which will make them still more pleasing. It would be highly desirable if the Paris Division could add to its library resources—resources which at present are largely the product of chance. The additions should include primarily good French and American periodicals in the fields of letters, science, art and philosophy, and some standard reference works in French and in English. When the rooms are kept open in the evenings,

as is planned for next year, many students will undoubtedly come to study and read, which consideration gives added point to this recommendation.

The two small rooms on the fourth floor of the building have been of great service to American professors who had found it almost impossible to secure quiet quarters for study, and were delighted to find here a cordial welcome and suitable place to work.

The Union's chief regret is that, as matters now stand, there is small possibility of its having the American Library in Paris, or even a section of it, as a near neighbour, an arrangement that would be eminently appropriate and mutually advantageous.

THE UNION AND THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The officers of the Union in Paris were naturally happy to learn of the merger with the American Council on Education, which at once enlarged the representative character of the former organization and gave it an assurance of more substantial financial support. The retention to a large degree of the former trustees as members of the Council's Committee on the Union is a guarantee that the successful policies of the past will suffer no hurtful change, and a closer identification of the Union with the activities of the Council is a highly logical and profitable development.

FRIENDLY COLLABORATORS.

The retiring Director received a cordial welcome from the French and the American organizations with which he would naturally come in contact. The *Comité France-Amérique*, the *Bienvenue Française*, the American Women's Club, the American University Women's Club, the American Club and the American Library in Paris made him feel their friendliness toward the Union and their interest in its work. He perceived at once the satisfying attitude of friendly cooperation on the part of all French university authorities, and wishes to record his thanks individually and officially to Rector Appell, to Dean Brunot, to Messrs Petit-Dutaillis

and Firmin Roz of the *Office National des Universités Françaises*, to Mr. Coville, Director of Higher Education, and to Mr. Guyot, secretary of the Academy of Paris, to Messrs. Goy and De Bardy, Directors of the *Bureau des Renseignements* of the Sorbonne. These distinguished gentlemen, as well as others, too numerous to mention, gave continuous evidence of their good will toward the Union as the European representative of American education. The retiring Director expresses the hope that during the present year the cordial relations already established by those who preceded him have been maintained, and, perhaps, even strengthened by the fact of having another year added to their existence.

He would also voice his recognition of the constant aid and encouragement to the Paris Division given by Messrs. James H. Hyde and A. D. Weil, members of the Executive Committee, and of the admirable efforts of the *Association d'Accueil aux Etudiants des Etats-Unis*, composed of French families of distinction, to facilitate contacts between American students and cultivated French people. The Secretary, Madame Seligmann-Lui, organized during the year a series of At-Homes and several delightful excursions that gave great pleasure to the young men and young women located in Paris, and served at the same time to give them more than passing glimpses of French home life. The *Bienvenue Française* was the host on several occasions to American students at agreeable parties, thanks especially to the hospitality of Mr. Henry Cachard, an American, long resident in Paris.

It would be ungrateful to close this report without mentioning two welcome gifts made to the Paris Division during the present year. Mr. Philippe Bunau-Varilla, well known in international journalistic and financial circles made a most unexpected donation of 5,000 francs to be used by the Union in entertaining its friends, students and others, and Mr. James H. Hyde, whose friendliness toward the Union and hospitality to its officers from its foundation are well known, turned over to the Paris Division a sum of about

10,000 francs remaining from contributions to the *Maison des Etudiants*, a project which has had, unfortunately, to be abandoned.

It remains for the retiring Director to thank his other collaborators and to mention, particularly, Mr. Harry Pratt Judson, chairman of the Committee on the Union, whose visit to Paris was the occasion of many pleasant moments, Messrs C. R. Mann, of the American Council on Education, and S. P. Duggan of the Institute of International Education, on whom he made frequent demands, and, more personally, Mr. H. S. Krans, his urbane and competent colleague, to whose familiarity with the activities of the Union, devotion to its interests, and tactful and sympathetic counsels he is largely indebted for any measure of success with which he was able to grasp and solve the many new problems brought to his attention.

ALGERNON COLEMAN.

Director.

The New Immigration Law and the Colleges

THE IMMIGRATION ACT of 1924, which became effective August 1, 1924, involves certain regulations of great importance to all American institutions in which foreign students are or will be registered. This is apparent in the instructions for executing a "Petition for Approval of a School for Immigrant Students," issued by W. W. Husband, Commissioner General of Immigration:

1. Under the Immigration Act of 1924, aliens who are bona fide students may, under certain conditions, be admitted to the United States as non-quota immigrants; the provision of the law in that respect being as follows:

"Section 4. When used in this Act the term 'non-quota immigrant' means—

* * * * *

"(c) An immigrant who is a bona fide student at least 15 years of age and who seeks to enter the United States solely for the purpose of study at an accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university particularly designated by him and approved by the Secretary of Labor which shall have agreed to report to the Secretary of Labor the termination of attendance of each immigrant student, and if any such institution of learning fails to make such reports promptly the approval shall be withdrawn."

2. A bona fide student within the meaning of the above provision is a person at least 15 years of age who is qualified to enter, and has definitely arranged to enter, an accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university particularly designated by him, and approved by the Secretary of Labor, and who seeks to enter the United States temporarily for the sole purpose of pursuing a definite course of study at such institution.

3. Any school, college, academy, seminary, or university desiring approval as a school for immigrant students may file with the Secretary of Labor a petition in writing (Form 62) stating its name and location; the date when established; the requirements for admission, including age, whether coeducational; the courses of study offered and the time required to complete each course; the degrees, if any, conferred; the calendar of its school year, including terms and semesters; whether day or night sessions are held or both; the average annual number of students

attending; the number of teachers or instructors employed; the approximate total annual cost of board, tuition, etc., per student, and the causes for expulsion; provided that when a catalog is issued by such school, college, academy, seminary, or university, a copy of the last edition thereof shall be filed with and made part of the petition with appropriate reference to the pages of such catalog where the information herein required may be found. If the Secretary of Labor is satisfied that such school, college, academy, seminary, or university has been established for at least two years immediately preceding the filing of the petition herein required; that it is a bona fide institution of learning, and that it possesses the necessary facilities and is otherwise qualified for the instruction and education of immigrant students, he may approve such school, college, academy, seminary, or university as a school for immigrant students.

4. No petition for approval as a school for immigrant students shall be considered unless such petition is accompanied by the written agreement of the school, college, academy, seminary, or university, seeking such approval, to report in writing to the Commissioner General of Immigration, immediately upon the admission of an immigrant student to such institution, the name, age, and local address of such student; the name and complete address of a friend or relative of such student in the United States; the date when such student was admitted, the course of study to be pursued by him, and at the termination of the attendance of such student, to forthwith report, in writing, to the Secretary of Labor the date when and the reasons why such attendance was terminated.

5. Form 62, and the written agreement accompanying it, must be executed by the principal officer of the school, college, academy, seminary, or university having authority to execute contracts.

6. When it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that any school, college, academy, seminary, or university approved as a school for immigrant students, neglects or refuses to comply with all and singular the terms of its agreement, he may withdraw or revoke his approval of such school, college, academy, Seminary, or university as a school for immigrant students.

7. Any immigrant student admitted to the United States as a non-quota immigrant under the provisions of subdivision (e) Section 4 of the Immigration Act of 1924, who fails, neglects or refuses to regularly attend the school, college, academy, seminary, or university to which he has been admitted, or who otherwise fails, neglects or refuses to maintain the status of a bona fide student, or who is expelled from such institution, or who engages in any business or occupation for profit, or who labors for hire, shall be deemed to have abandoned his status as an immigrant student and shall on the warrant of the Secretary of Labor be taken into custody and deported.

The following condensation of the petition blanks of the Department of Labor shows the information required before an institution is placed on the list of approved institutions:

PETITION FOR APPROVAL OF SCHOOL FOR
IMMIGRANT STUDENT
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Immigration

In re: _____ No.

(Name of school, college, etc.)

To the Honorable Secretary of Labor,
Washington, D. C.

_____ located at
County of _____ State of _____
respectfully petitions for approval as a school for immigrant students under subdivision (e) section 4, of the Immigration Act of 1924, and submits the following statement of facts concerning such institution:

1. Date established.
2. Requirements for admission, including age, and whether co-educational.
3. Courses of study and time necessary to complete each.
4. Degrees conferred.
5. Calendar of school year, including terms or semesters.
6. Whether day or night sessions or both.
7. Average annual number of students.
8. Number of teachers or instructors employed.
9. Approximate total annual cost of board, tuition, etc., per student.
10. Causes for expulsion.
11. Agreement to report the entrance and termination of attendance of immigrant students is filed herewith and made part hereof.

Dated at _____ this the _____ day of _____ A. D.

(Corporate seal

Petitioner.

of

institution)

By

(Official title)

Note: If catalog is issued, the latest edition thereof must accompany this petition, and, if the information sought in questions 1 to 10 inclusive appears in such catalog, reference to the pages of the catalog where such information may be found will be sufficient answer to such inquiries.

Note: Some officers have typed their names instead of signing the agreement. Of course this does not satisfy the requirement. Some officers have failed to sign the agreement, apparently thinking that Paragraph 11 of the petition is the agreement.

Answers to Inquiries must be Typewritten.

AGREEMENT TO REPORT ENTRANCE AND TERMINATION
OF ATTENDANCE OF IMMIGRANT STUDENTS

In consideration of the approval of the

(Name of school, college, etc.)

the petitioner herein, by the Secretary of Labor, as a school for immigrant students said petitioner hereby agrees:

(1) Upon the admission of an immigrant student to such institution to file with the Commissioner General of Immigration, Washington, D. C., a report in writing stating the name, age, and local address of such student; the name and complete address of a friend or relative of such student in the United States; the date when such student was admitted, and the course of study to be pursued by him.

(2) Forthwith, upon the termination of the attendance of such student, to file a report in writing with the Secretary of Labor, Washington, D. C., stating the date when, and the reasons why, such attendance was terminated.

Dated at this the day of A. D.
(Corporate seal (Name of school, college, etc.)
of
institution) By

(Official title)

The within named approved as a School for Immigrant
Students this the day of A. D.

Secretary of Labor.

The Commissioner has also issued to prospective students the following letter of instructions:

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION
WASHINGTON

Status of Students under the Immigration Act of 1924

1. The following information is published for the guidance of persons who desire to enter the United States as students under the Immigration Act of 1924, and who may apply to an American Consular Officer for a non-quota immigration visa for that purpose.

2. Section 4 of the above Act provides in part as follows:

"When used in this Act the term 'non-quota immigrant' means—

* * * * *

(e) An immigrant who is a bona fide student at least 15 years of age and who seeks to enter the United States solely for the purpose of study at an accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university, particularly designated by him and approved by the Secretary of Labor, which shall have agreed to report to the Secretary of Labor the termination of attendance of each immigrant student, and if any such

institution of learning fails to make such reports promptly the approval shall be withdrawn."

3. A bona fide student within the meaning of the Act is a person at least 15 years of age who is qualified to enter, and has definitely arranged to enter, an accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university particularly designated by him, and approved by the Secretary of Labor, and who seeks to enter the United States temporarily for the sole purpose of pursuing a definite course of study at such institution.

4. An approved school, within the meaning of the Act, is any accredited school, college, academy, seminary, or university which has been established for at least two years, and which has applied for and received the approval of the Secretary of Labor as a school for immigrant students. When a school is approved the Department of State informs all American Consular Offices, and until so advised consular officers are not in a position to consider an intending student's application for a non-quota immigration visa.

5. The Bureau of Immigration can advise whether a particular school has been approved but it can be of no assistance in the matter of obtaining visas for students. It may be suggested, however, that persons desiring to enter the United States temporarily as students, should first apply to an institution of learning for admission thereto for the purpose of pursuing a definite course of study. If accepted as a student by the admitting authorities of the designated school, the applicant should then present evidence of this fact to the proper American Consular officer in the district where he resides and, if the school is on the approved list, the Consul will be in a position to consider an application for the necessary visa. It is further suggested that an applicant should be prepared to satisfy the consular officer to whom application for a visa is made that he is possessed of sufficient funds to defray all expenses during his stay in the United States, or that payment thereof is properly secured and that he will be able to devote his time solely to study.

6. The possession of a student visa will not entitle the holder to admission to the United States if on his arrival it shall appear to the immigration authorities that the applicant is not in fact a bona fide student within the meaning of the Immigration Act above quoted.

7. Any immigrant student admitted to the United States as a non-quota immigrant who fails, neglects or refuses to regularly attend the school to which he has been admitted, or who otherwise fails, neglects or refuses to maintain the status of a bona fide student, or who is expelled from such institution, or who engages in any business or occupation for profit, or who labors for hire, shall be deemed to have abandoned his status as an immigrant student and shall on the warrant of the Secretary of Labor be taken into custody and deported.

Inasmuch as a written agreement to report certain items to the Commissioner General of Immigration is a necessary condition of approval by the Secretary of Labor, it is obvious that even if a university is at present on all the "approved lists" already in existence it must execute the petition for approval by signing the agreement to cooperate with the Commissioner General. Apparently this has not been understood by the universities, for the London director of the American University Union has found it necessary to cable certain important universities to file these petitions so that British students already awarded important fellowships at these institutions might not find themselves excluded because some of the leading universities of the country had not been approved. If for any reason an institution is not included in the list possessed by the American Consul the prospective student suffers inconvenient and embarrassing delay owing to the necessity for sending papers to the United States. Not until the petition of the university, including the written agreement, has been approved by the Secretary of Labor, is the Secretary of State notified so that consuls may be instructed regarding visas. In order to expedite the admission of prospective foreign students each college or university should at once execute and send to the Bureau of Immigration Form 62, "Petition for Approval of School for Immigrant Students."

It is to be noted that the law requires that the immigrant student particularly designate the institution to be attended. It is conceivable that a foreign student in good faith will designate an institution to which in fact he may be unable to secure admission. Or, after securing admission, the foreign student, like other students, may find it impossible to continue. In view of the agreement to report to the Commissioner General the "date when, and the reasons why, such attendance was terminated," it is incumbent on each institution to attend faithfully and promptly to the business. In some institutions not many students will be involved. In such this addition to the duties of already burdened

executives will not be great. In others the number of foreign students will continue, as heretofore, to be considerable. These will doubtless find it essential to designate a special officer or committee to keep account of the movements of foreign students. Already Columbia and Chicago have such officers.

Although, for purposes of the government and the universities and colleges, such an officer in certain colleges has been of great help to foreign students, it is desirable not to segregate foreign students in administration or instruction, a large part of the educational advantage for these students lying in their associations as regular students in an American college. The practice of appointing an officer or committee is commended to all colleges and universities. It may be desirable also for each institution to insert in its catalog a notice for the guidance of foreign students. This note will serve as a reminder to the responsible college officer. If the names and titles of those in charge of foreign students are reported to the Council, the American Council on Education will be in a position more promptly to serve its constituency.

The Immigration Act of 1924 requires patient, good natured and prompt cooperation on the part of all parties concerned. The American Council on Education proposes, on behalf of American colleges and universities, to offer such cooperation and to be alert and energetic in aiding the Bureau of Immigration to simplify and expedite procedure within the law.

DAVID A. ROBERTSON.

The "University System" at Michigan

RECENT attempts to organize Honors courses and to devise other means for the stimulation of scholarship as described in the report by President Aydelotte of Swarthmore, recently published by the National Research Council, recall a page in the history of the University of Michigan which may be of general interest at this time.

The movement, begun in the seventies away from the traditional college course, had powerful and enthusiastic friends at Michigan. The success of Germany in her recent successful war upon France had drawn special attention to the university system of that country, and members of the Michigan faculty, fresh from study abroad, were eager to enlarge the curriculum and change the prevailing methods of study. This was not a new note in faculty discussions, as the first president of the University of Michigan, Henry P. Tappan, in office from 1852 to 1863, had long been a keen critic of the American college. He saw the need of better libraries and apparatus, better equipped faculties, and more freedom in the choice of studies.¹

In her "History of the University of Michigan,"² Elizabeth M. Farrand describes the opposition to President Tappan's enthusiasms as follows:

So much was this foreign school system the burden of his discourse that it brought upon him a storm of censure and abuse from some of the journals of the state, whose editors were alarmed for the glory of the American eagle, or, possibly, were glad of a theme so potent to rouse the stout patriotism of their American hearts. Of all the imitations of English aristocracy, German mysticism, Prussian imperiousness, and Parisian nonsensities, he is altogether the most un-American-

¹ Hinsdale, B. A.: "History of the University of Michigan," p. 217.

² Ann Arbor, 1885, pp. 112-113.

ized, the most completely foreignized specimen of an abnormal Yankee we have ever seen. Such was the style of the attacks made upon him, worth notice only as pointing to the source from which opposition came.

This movement to stimulate real university work and lay the foundation for what is now known as graduate work was clearly in advance of the times, however, and with the advent of the new president, Dr. Haven, in 1863, interest in it gradually subsided, though a small number of graduate students continued to present themselves each year. The seminar method of instruction grew, and the increase in the number of elective studies gradually broke down the rigidity of the traditional prescribed course.

During all of this period the personal influence of Charles Kendall Adams was a very considerable factor in the situation. Graduating at Michigan in 1861 with the degree of Bachelor of Arts, he received the degree of Master of Arts on examination, after a year of graduate study. He was at once appointed instructor in history and after one year became instructor in history and latin. In 1865 he was promoted to the rank of assistant professor, and in 1867 he was made professor of history in place of Andrew D. White, resigned. With this final appointment he was given a year's leave of absence for study and travel in France, Italy and Germany. On his return, he it was who instituted the seminar method of instruction for his advanced classes, and this plan proved so successful that many of his colleagues adopted it.

In June, 1881, the Board of Regents, by a unanimous vote, authorized the organization of a School of Political Science, within the College of Literature, Science and the Arts. This school, which had been sponsored by Professor Adams, included in its faculty the following men who were all actively connected with university instruction at this time: James B. Angell, International Law, Political Economy, History of Diplomacy; Thomas M. Cooley, Constitutional Law and Administrative Law; Charles K. Adams, Political and Constitutional History; Richard Hudson, Political and

Constitutional History; Edward S. Dunster, Social Science; Victor C. Vaughan, Sanitary Science; and Volney M. Spalding, The Science of Forestry.

Students who had completed the first two years of a college course at Michigan, or in any other "respectable American college or university," could enter this new school and study along the line of their special interests, unhampered by traditional restrictions.

This plan once approved, grave apprehension was felt that it might make it easier to secure a Bachelor's or Master's degree in the new school than in the regular course, and it was also believed that it would cause confusion to have two groups of students working under different requirements for degrees in the same college. A committee was therefore appointed to consider the "Relations of the School of Political Science to the Literary Department," as the college was then called. This committee presented a printed report December 5, 1881, which was tabled and followed at a later meeting by a substitute presented by Professor Adams. The question was debated in nine or ten faculty meetings, and finally, on May 1, 1882, a compromise prepared by President Angell and Professors Adams, D'Ooge and Pettee was adopted.

This compromise created what was known as the "University System" and opened, to students in all fields of study, the advantages for free, unhampered work, which had been one of the special features of the School of Political Science. To quote from Dr. Hinsdale:

Under the rules constituting this system, students who had completed the required work of the first two years were no longer held to complete a fixed number of courses but were permitted to select, subject to approval, three lines of study to be pursued under the direction of a committee composed of the professors having these studies in charge, and to graduate at the end of the course, receiving the appropriate degree, provided they passed the prescribed examinations in a satisfactory manner. The object of this system was to secure the advantages of such specialization as can be given to students at this stage of advancement, to students who should elect them, subject to approval.

In President Angell's annual report presented to the

Board of Regents, November 7, 1883, the following interesting statements occur:

I think no one can be familiar with the interior life of our Literary Department without perceiving that our advanced students are imbued with the spirit of genuine university work. They are not studying for marks or credits, but with a sincere devotion to learning are seeking in a most generous and earnest spirit the broadest and deepest culture attainable here.

For the last few years we have in our policy recognized a sharp line of demarcation between the work of the first two years and that of subsequent years. The former we have treated as gymnasial or academic; the latter we have aimed to shape in the large and free spirit of university work. The question has often been asked us why we do not altogether drop the former and confine ourselves to the latter, which our title of University seems to call us to prosecute. For myself I wish that we might do so. If the high schools or the several colleges of the state could relieve us of the labor of the first two years, and send us the students as well prepared as they now are at the beginning of the third year, I should esteem it a great fortune to the university to be able to take them at that stage and carry them on through advanced courses in literature and science, or through the professional schools.

A study of the records of the university gives the following statistical information concerning the number working under the University System and the number graduating from it:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Enrolled</i>	<i>Graduated</i>
1882-83.....	24	5
1883-84.....	18	11
1884-85.....	9	4
1885-86.....	10	4
1886-87.....	13	3
1887-88.....	16	13
1888-89.....	5	2
1889-90.....	5	3
1890-91.....	3	3

The university catalogs continue to describe this system up to and including the catalog for the year 1900-01, but after 1891 there were no further graduations under its provisions. While it is true that Professor Adams resigned at Michigan in 1885 to become President of Cornell, that fact in itself does not seem an adequate explanation for the decrease in interest, shown by these figures. Probably the gradual development of the free elective system was in large

measure responsible. It is interesting to note further that, while many of the ablest students in the period from 1882 to 1891 were studying in this way, many others were not, including two who have attained great distinction in the field of scholarship and who now hold what are probably the most important positions in the university world ever held by Michigan graduates.

JOHN R. EFFINGER.

College Entrance Certificates¹

MANY significant characteristics of education may be studied through the detail of administration. Not infrequently demonstrable improvements in such detail are suggestive for educational theory and practice in general.

With these considerations in mind, the Carnegie Foundation made for the Seventh Annual Meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars in 1916, a study of College Entrance Certificates that were used by 110 universities and colleges in the autumn of 1915.² At the request of the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools,³ and its successor, the Committee on Standards of the American Council on Education, the Foundation has made a similar study of the College Entrance Certificates that were used by 143 universities and colleges in the autumn of 1922. The situation indicated by these two masses of material and the tendencies indicated by their differences are illuminating,⁴ especially because of the increasing use of certificates by colleges that heretofore have depended almost entirely on examinations. These tendencies are pictured in the charts following page 246 and may be briefly summarized as follows:

Concerning the form of the blanks, there is confirmation of and emphasis upon previously predominant opinion. Blanks of business letter size, 8.5 x 11 inches, have increased

¹ Report to the Committee on Standards of the American Council on Education, May 1, 1924.

² Proceedings 7:58ff; Carnegie Foundation, Eleventh Annual Report, 1916, 131-8.

³ Minutes of the Fifteenth Conference, March 18, 1922, p. 9.

⁴ The blanks were collated and the following tables and charts were made by Miss Margaret Herod.

from one-half to three-fourths of the whole number. Blanks of two pages, with horizontal printing, for flat filing, have increased from one-half to two-thirds.

With regard to the content of the blanks, previously predominant opinion is generally confirmed and emphasized. Nine-tenths of the institutions studied continue to print on their blanks the names of the chief subjects for which credit may be granted; three-fourths of these are arranged by departments. Blanks that ask the date of the student's graduation, the weeks per year, the hours per week, and the grades for each subject taken, have increased from three-fourths to four-fifths of the whole number. Those asking for the length of class periods have increased from one-half to three-fourths; those asking the applicant's age, from nearly one-half to two-thirds.

Significant changes in general tendencies are equally well defined: the number of institutions asking for laboratory as well as class hours has increased from 21 to 60 per cent; those asking for the year of the curriculum in which the courses were taken, from 19 to 48 per cent.

All of these prevailing characteristics and changes represent a gratifying and increasing realization that a certificate for entrance to college may well be the most significant document of a student's academic career, the crowning of the work of his preparatory school, and the foundation of what college may be able to do for him.

Along with a general increase of emphasis upon what may be considered essentials, there is an almost equally general tendency toward simplification. Requests for names of textbooks decreased from 57 to 38 per cent. Printing on both sides of one sheet has increased from one-third to one-half of the whole number. Institutions using blanks differing among themselves decreased from 39 to 23 per cent. There appears to be an increasing recognition of the principle that, although blanks must be fairly comprehensive, they are intended for representative rather than exceptional cases. Students from schools of established reputation need only

such records as differentiate their personal qualities and accomplishment. Very unusual cases can best be treated by special correspondence; here, if anywhere, and not on every blank, is the place for the information asked by some institutions concerning the edition of each textbook and the number of its pages that have been studied and read.

Characteristics less generally agreed upon have also a certain significance.

Those who fill out college entrance certificates, being too often unnecessarily burdened, will be glad that there appear now to be only thirty-three different sizes of blanks instead of forty-four as hitherto; and that, although some institutions continue to use blanks no larger than a double postcard, the largest have decreased in size from two sheets of fool-cap to one. They will regret that the percentage of blanks on which the printing runs two, three, and even four different ways has increased from 29 to 38 per cent. They will wonder why the number of institutions that print no list of subjects, but ask the recorder to write them, has increased from 9 to 14. Such invitations to unnecessary effort must often be met by failure to give information that is essential. Recorders will hope, finally, that more blanks will be printed so that they can be filled out on the typewriter.

The interpreter and filer of blanks, who desires in all things clarity and convenience, will perhaps regret that instead of one-half now only one-third of our institutions use a four-page entrance certificate, which is so adequate for displaying data and so convenient as a folder for other records concerning the same student. He will almost certainly be gratified that the percentage of blanks that must be folded for filing has decreased from 42.5 to 38 per cent, and that the meaning of the marks given by the school is now defined on 36 instead of 17 per cent of the blanks. This is appropriate discouragement for the few institutions that continue to say they do not wish specific marks, being satisfied to know merely that the student has passed. The interpreter will be glad, further, at the reduction from a dozen to a half

dozen of the blanks that suggest for recording subjects only a check mark, underscoring, or cancellation, any one of which is so easily forgotten or misplaced; that the signatures of 87 blanks rather than 41 as heretofore, are at the logical place, the end; that 48 instead of 37 blanks now have a place for the rating given by the college and the signature of the approving officer, thus making the record entirely complete. Only a few blanks continue to ask the school to assume the responsibility of the college in certifying that the student has completed the entrance requirements of the college.

These various tendencies appear, on the whole, so encouraging that it might be desirable to request the Association of Collegiate Registrars, the Middle States, North Central, and Southern Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools; the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Texas Associations; and any other associations that may be interested, to report their experience with and their suggestions concerning uniform blanks to the American Council on Education, for summary and general distribution.

The most striking difference between the blanks of 1915 and 1922 is the present tendency to ask for personal data that was almost ignored a dozen years ago. Of 146 colleges, 105 now request personal information of this kind—not only the date and place of the student's birth (979 and 54 instances), the names and addresses of his parents or guardians (72, 54, 49, 15), but also the parent's or guardian's business or profession (46), nationality (12), and college training (9). There are also requests for the student's church membership or religious preference (45 and 30), his special interests in study, athletics, and self-support (24, 23, 19), his intentions with regard to college and vocation (20, 19), his school offices, athletics, honors, reading, and other activities and interests (11, 10, 10, 10, 8, 7).

From persons other than the student, questions are asked concerning his character (53), ability (43), integrity (21), health (20), promise (20), industry (19), faithfulness (19), straight-forwardness (12), clean-mindedness (11), leadership

(11), good-fellowship (10), ceremony (10), and the like.

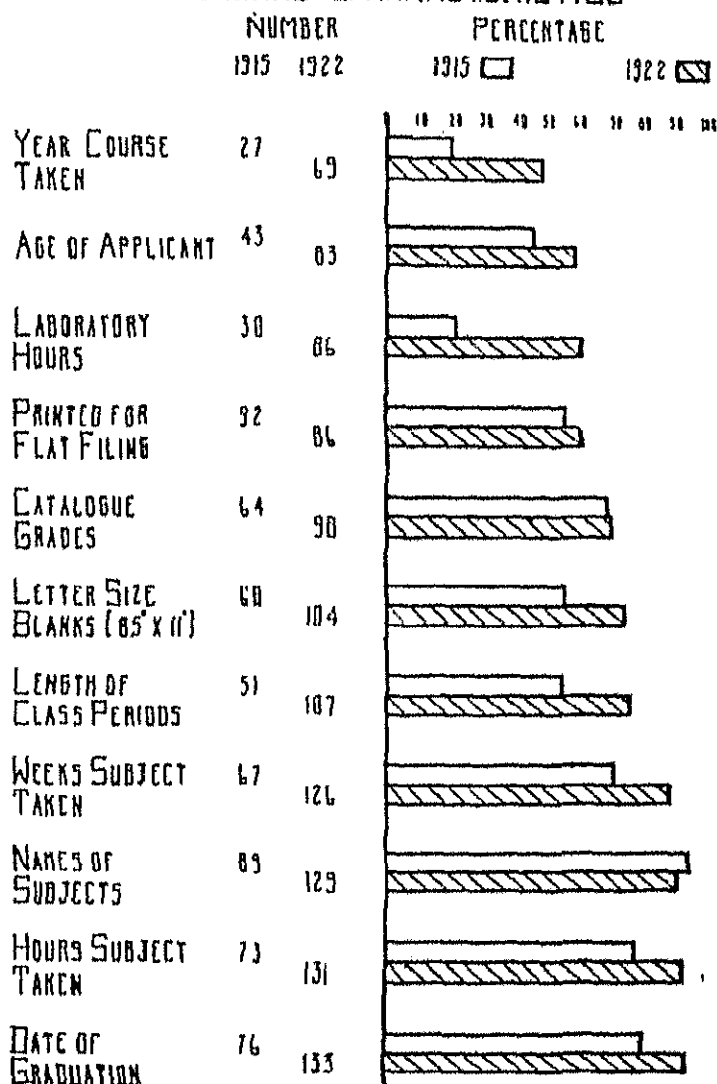
The appreciation of such data is highly significant although the manner in which it is registered and the use to which it is put by the colleges appear to be as yet almost wholly unorganized and informal.

The American Council on Education could perform a signal service by appointing a special committee of psychologists, statisticians, administrators, and teachers already expert in such matters, to study the present and possible use of such personal data. Such a committee might be able to recommend generally available methods of selecting, securing, and recording traits of behavior which may be clearly distinguished and compared, readily measured, and certainly employed by college officers and teachers as suggestions for the student's further development.

CLARENCE PERROW.

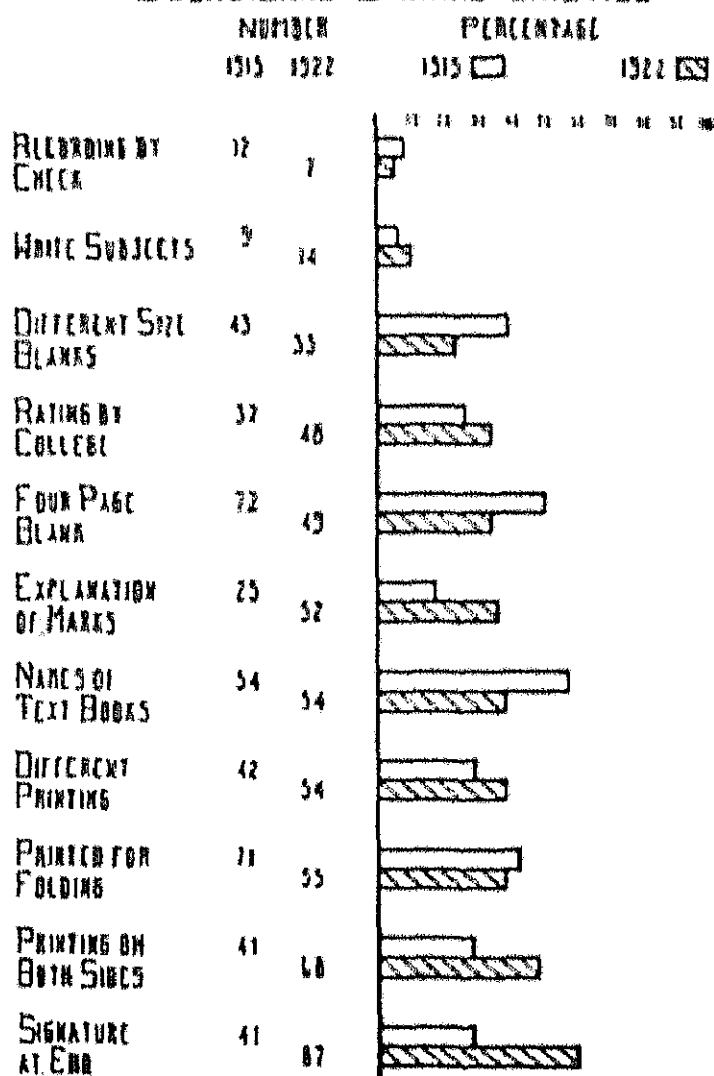
COLLEGE ENTRANCE CERTIFICATE

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS



COLLEGE ENTRANCE CERTIFICATE

OCCASIONAL CHARACTERISTICS



The Divergence in the Interpretation of Entrance Units¹

ONE OF the first definitions of a unit for the measurement of admission requirements was that formulated by the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools on October 9, 1909. This read, "A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work." Through the cooperation of the College Entrance Examination Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching this definition met with general approval and was soon widely used. Those interested recognized at once that the use of this definition was attended by many difficulties. There were certain inequalities among subjects and still greater inequalities among schools. A laboratory course might wisely demand much more of schedule time than a purely classroom subject like English or Latin, and yet each might properly be measured as one unit. Possibly a 5-hours-per-week course in history taken in the first year of the secondary school might be of no more value, or of even less value, than a 3-hours-per-week course in the same subject taken in the fourth year, and should not the latter be counted as of one unit's worth quite as readily as the former? Yet the latter would not constitute a quarter of the work of the fourth year. The value of a course is greatly affected by its position in the earlier or the later part of the four years' curriculum, and that value is also much altered by the presence or absence of appropriate allied prerequisite subjects. For example, a course in biology in the fourth secondary school year is of far greater worth

¹Report to the Committee on Standards of the American Council on Education, May 1, 1924.

than one taken in the first year, and a course in chemistry is greatly increased in value by being preceded by a year's course in physics. Again, the pupil's schedule involves far more periods in one school than in another, and the measurement of the accomplishment in units where each means only "a year's study in any subject" must give widely differing and inconsistent results. The situation is still further complicated by the fact that here and there a school insistently maintains that it does accomplish far more with its pupils in a year than the average school can do, and that it must accordingly be permitted to measure its year as of more than four units in accomplishment. In an attempt to meet some of these difficulties, the National Conference Committee voted on February 19, 1913, to add to its definition of the unit the following clause: "A four years' secondary school curriculum should be regarded as representing not more than sixteen units of work."

From the beginning of the use of this definition, and in spite of all attempts to the contrary, there has been great divergence from the counting of the usual and normal secondary school course as including more than sixteen units of work. The Assistant Commissioner of the State of New York announced in 1912 that the regularly approved four-year secondary school course in that state was entitled to 19.2 units of credit. The *School Review* for December, 1916 (pp. 713-723), reported that "eleven estimable secondary schools in and near Chicago" assigned more than 16 units of credit to each of 183 among the 256 pupils graduated from four-year courses in June, 1915. Many individual graduates received 16, 17, and 18 units, and some few even as many as 20 and 21. Similarly, the matriculation records of Virginia colleges for 1915-16 show that 12 institutions credited 126 graduates of four-year secondary schools with totals of units ranging from $16\frac{1}{4}$ to $21\frac{1}{2}$. Again, the United States Bureau of Education reported in 1916 that the State Department of Education in Texas was regularly requiring $17\frac{3}{4}$ units for graduation in its approved high schools, a unit

involving 5 periods of 35 to 40 minutes each per week for 36 weeks.

But later information is at hand. From an address delivered by Dr. Clyde Furst before the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the experience of forty colleges and universities of that Association in their admissions in 1921 is available. Of the 8,547 matriculants received in that year, more than half (54.5 per cent) presented more than the maximum requirement of 15 units; 1,318 (15.6 per cent) offered $15\frac{1}{2}$ units, and 1,885 (22.2 per cent) offered 16 units, the maximum number which, under the definition, can be acquired in the curriculum followed. But 1,439 (16.7 per cent), or one in every six, presented more units than the full four-year schedule affords. Of these, 482 (5.6 per cent) offered $16\frac{1}{2}$ units, 415 (4.8 per cent) offered 17 units, and 542 (6.3 per cent) offered still more, ranging all the way from $17\frac{1}{2}$ to $26\frac{1}{2}$ units. While all the colleges concerned seem to have derived their definitions of the unit from the same source, some of them have so revised that definition as to render it a very loose measure. The unit has from the first aimed to retain somewhat of flexibility but that flexibility appears to have become inexcusably great.

Something would be accomplished if the catalogs of all the colleges could be persuaded to print the definition in identical form. Schools apparently in many instances demand excess credit. The colleges differ widely in their response to such demands. Three colleges among the forty under consideration granted such credit to each of more than half its entire number of matriculants. Half a dozen other institutions gave such credit to a third or more of their matriculants, and in ten others a fourth or a fifth of the matriculants received like treatment. Plainly, no such proportions of these many young people spent more than four years in the secondary school or should be credited with such surplus of preparation for college. It is largely a question of administration in the forty colleges, for ten of

them report that no matriculant received any excess credit, and a half dozen more found less than one in ten entitled to such credit. There must exist in many of these schools and colleges an expansive method of counting units. Such a method seems in many respects detrimental to good standards.

That this is not a geographical question is proved by another study made and reported by Dr. Furst. This concerns entrance to college in 1922 in the colleges and universities of Massachusetts. Of 6,603 freshmen admitted in that year, it was found that 16 per cent had offered less than the full requirement, 41 per cent had exactly met the requirement, and 36 per cent had presented excess credits, amounting in some instances to as many as 14 or even 15 units beyond the requirement. It is unlikely that any large number of these freshmen had spent extra time in the secondary school, yet more than two thousand of them had received such credits at admission to college as necessitated, under the definition of the unit, a continuance in the secondary school beyond the regular four years; and in many cases they must have continued there with creditable grades through not only a fifth and a sixth but even a seventh year to accomplish such a result. Yet that these offenses against educational standards are more or less localized is proved by the fact that sixteen schools, comprising only 3 per cent of all the schools concerned, contributed 30 per cent of all these disturbing cases. It is a particular kind of secondary school which performs such educational feats.

A certain university of fair reputation received 284 matriculants last autumn. All came by certificate. More than three-quarters offered more than the normal requirement of 15 units; 43 per cent were credited with 16 units each, 21 per cent with 17 units, 7 per cent with 18 units, 9 individual matriculants with 19 units each, and 3 matriculants with 20 units each. These matriculants are supposed to have completed only the regular high school curriculum of four years, and yet one in every three of them has the credits appropriate

to a longer period of study. The value of the medium of exchange in the relation between schools and colleges is being depreciated in all such cases. The university from whose books these figures were taken is not at all exceptional, but may be accepted as in these regards a fair representative of the majority of the collegiate institutions of today.

From the State Department of Education at Albany comes information to the effect that in a group of 26 large city high schools, the requirement for graduation demands the completion of 16 units in 12 schools, 17 units in 5 schools, 18 units in 8 schools, and 17½ in one school. Among the commercial high schools in the large cities a higher requirement in units for graduation exists ranging from 18 to 20 units in each instance. The technical high schools of the large cities propose a still higher number, only one in a group of six falling below 20 units and two in that group demanding 22 units. It appears that these extravagantly high figures come from the counting of courses of 3 hours per week as integral units. Manifestly no attention is paid in these cases to the second clause of the definition of the unit which specifies that a four-year secondary school curriculum shall include only 16 units of work.

In certain instances it appears that the number of units is expanded because of extra credit for good grades. For example, one large city high school announces that "every A grade or rating as a final semester grade carries 1½ credits." Another large high school announces that "extra credits are allowed for outside work in art or music." Various other high schools express themselves as entirely in sympathy with the counting of extra credits for work of high grade.

Most colleges wisely grant no advanced standing for such excess credits but only count the admission clear. If these extra subjects were worth their face value, advanced standing ought to be given. Since they are not, should they not by some effective means be discouraged in and abolished from the schools?

School principals here and there are noticing that three

years should be long enough to prepare for college if four years can so far overreach the necessary preparation. Accordingly some principals are giving college entrance certificates to certain pupils on completion of only three years of work. Of right we admitted to one women's college last autumn, two failed to continue beyond the first semester.

One college reports that nearly all received with an excess of credits fall as low as the third quarter of the class in college while most of those in the first quarter were admitted without such excess. A particular instance was noticed where a boy admitted with 30 units of credit from a secondary school was dropped for failure at the end of the first semester.

The statements made above concerning the prevalence of excess credits are said by those familiar with the situation to have been found applicable at the present time to the educational institutions of Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, Delaware, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, Colorado, Utah, Wyoming, and Connecticut.

The subjects measured by the excess units are many of them strange and of dubious fitness for college preparatory purposes. They include not only economics, business economics, psychology, philosophy, arithmetic, sociology, debating, Russian, Norwegian, Chinese, and Japanese, but also chorus, glee club, penmanship, poetry, farm poultry, war gardens, and Arabic. While many colleges would refuse to accept a single unit from any of these, it seems unfortunate that others are readily crediting a considerable proportion of the admission requirement there. Better that such units come only as extras, but better still if the full four years be given to subjects of greater secondary school value.

Investigation of such questions regularly reveals that fractional units range in amount from half units which are fairly common to thirds, fourths, fifths, and even tenths. The worth of one-tenth of a unit in war gardens, glee club, or Arabic for college admissions purposes is too infinitesimal for calculation.

The present misuse of the definition of the unit, particularly through expansion, and the attendant consequences in school and college seem sufficiently serious to call for corrective measures. What those measures should be and how they should be applied are questions very difficult to answer. The results sought would perhaps include the following:

1. The colleges to use and to print in their catalogs a common definition of the unit expressed in the clearest possible terms.

2. That definition to emphasize the fact that a four-year secondary school curriculum may ordinarily lay claim to no more than 16 units in the case of any pupil, and schools and colleges to interpret school records accordingly.

3. No fractional units other than halves to be used and very few detached fractions to be employed.

4. The colleges to demand with increasing insistence that substantial subjects with two, three, or four years of continuous study therein be the basis of admission to college on the part of every matriculant.

Such are some of the points suggested as a counsel of perfection. What action this body may wisely take at this time is a difficult question.

FREDERICK C. PERRY.

Army Experiments with Progress and Proficiency Tests

THE PURPOSE of this paper is to discuss, briefly, progress and proficiency tests in the Army or, more correctly, in the Signal Corps. A word or two will not be out of place, by way of introduction, in describing where and how these tests are being produced. The Signal School, which is the special service school of the Signal Corps of the United States Army, is located at Camp Alfred Vail, New Jersey, and here instruction is given both to enlisted men and to officers in the various technical matters pertaining to applied communications of all sorts, that is, regarding the operation and maintenance of radio sets and telegraph and telephone lines. In addition there are maintained a loft for the training of carrier pigeons for military purposes and a meteorological station for the instruction of weather observers.

In many respects this school has the same problems of instruction and administration to deal with that any other trade or technical school elsewhere would have. Beside these there are many other problems to be solved which are of a peculiarly military character. Not only must instruction be given in technical matters but this instruction must be in military terms and according to military procedure, and even the textbooks themselves in many cases must be devised with the special needs of the school and the Army in view. There is now being developed a series of training manuals of which seven or eight have already been published, which relate directly to the technique of applied communications. From the various necessities of the school there has also arisen a need for tests of many sorts; and, in answer to this need, during the past eighteen months, a considerable

variety of tests and examinations have been developed and used. Thus there are tests for entrance to the school not greatly unlike those used elsewhere; there are others, including psychological tests, for the classification and assignment of men upon their arrival at the school or upon their assignment to a military company; there is a so-called inventory type which attempts a kind of mental stock taking that is somewhat different from the ordinary entrance test; there are also being developed aptitude tests; and further, as an accompaniment to the actual instruction in the school, there are instruction tests, and lastly, the progress and proficiency tests, the subject of this paper.

This rather extensive list may seem to be rather complicated in terminology, somewhat as was Polonius' critique of the drama of his day, but there is this distinction—in each case the tests have been devised in response to some real necessity in the administration of the school. Just as one example, promotions to the grades of the various noncommissioned officers in the Army depend in part on examinations, and it is extremely important from every point of view that to meet this condition there shall be a suitable proficiency test that shall be as reliable and usable as possible.

At the outset, in the preparation of the tests, particularly of those to accompany the series of manuals just referred to, the very important decision was made to cast them into the so-called "new type" form rather than to follow the older and more conservative model which has until recently been used by the great majority of schools and other agencies. In addition to the best and most recent educational practice of the sort, as for example, that in operation at Columbia University, there were also available the experience and literature of the psychological tests and of the trade tests, as these latter were developed during the war by the Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army.

The principles of construction so derived may be specified thus:

1. A progress or proficiency test should be designed to

examine a definitely restricted field, such as that determined by a series of Unit Operations, a Training Manual, or a set of Minimum Specifications relating to some job or duty.

2. The test should follow the "new type" model, that is, make use so far as possible of questions of the true-false, completion, multiple choice, and true-test types. It should also include appropriate performance tests.

3. Scoring should be as objective as possible, that is, require little or no personal opinion or judgment from the person who scores the papers. The scoring should be done easily, almost automatically, and preferably by means of a stencil or scoring device.

4. The test should be applicable to very large numbers, as during a mobilization period in a time of great national emergency.

5. The test should determine what the examinee can *do* as well as what he *knows* as mere information.

Certain terms and phrases are used in this paper, and it may be worth while to explain them now.

By *proficiency* is meant the possession of that particular skill or information which is necessary for the successful performance of a specific job or duty.

By a *standard of proficiency* is meant a definite statement setting forth the exact amount or degree of this skill or information which is found to be necessary.

For illustration: *Proficiency* in a radio operator includes the requirement that he shall be skillful in sending messages by manipulating a telegraph key. The *standard of proficiency* is that he shall do this at the rate of twenty words per minute with not to exceed a certain number of errors in a period of, say, three minutes.

Any discussion of proficiency in Army trades or in the duties of a soldier will thus almost necessarily call for an explicit statement of a corresponding standard of proficiency.

A standard of proficiency always implies some sort of exact unit or yard stick by which this proficiency can be measured. However, there is a rather striking lack of

uniformity in the kinds of units which are employed in the Army to determine this standard of proficiency. The yard stick may range from a means of measurement which is reasonably exact and explicit up to a something else which, while it must also be used as a unit for measuring, is rather vague, indefinite in its extent, and even somewhat elastic, in the sense that it will vary in length or in width according to the opinion of the person who is using it. As an example of a reasonably exact means of measurement we have the method of scoring an individual's hits on the target range, or the method of requiring that 80 per cent of an Army unit shall be graded as marksmen in order that the unit shall qualify as proficient. On the other hand, as an example of the vaguely determined yard stick we have the requirements by which to judge the ability of a soldier in interior guard duty in which he is required officially to demonstrate "a thorough working knowledge in the general orders for sentinels," but in which considerable latitude is obviously left to the judgment of the person who is rating or scoring him in this particular requirement.

As an example of the need for a standard of proficiency and for a proficiency test I shall quote the following example from a pamphlet that has recently been prepared for the use of officers who must give instruction in Signal Corps subjects.

An officer was directed to prepare an examination in Electricity and Magnetism to be given to Sergeants, Signal Corps, for the purpose of determining eligibility in that particular subject for promotion to the grade of Staff Sergeant. The officer assumed that if he prepared a proficiency test for Sergeant, then the highest scores on such a test would indicate those suitable for promotion in that subject.

The actual test which was prepared was not greatly unlike the type of test which is commonly used in a technical high school or a college in examining a class of students in a course in physics—that is, it was of the customary "essay" or "free answer" type, and will be sufficiently indicated by quoting a couple of the ten problems or questions of which it was composed.

"1. Define a Magnet.

(a) What is a natural magnet?

(b) What is an artificial magnet?

"7. You have an instrument that requires a current of .5 amperes and its resistance is known to be 3 ohms. You have a supply of 1.5 volt batteries. How many batteries would you use and how would you connect them? Draw diagram."

The test was then given to a Signal Corps noncommissioned officer who wrote down his answers in the usual way. Next the test, together with the non-com's answers, was submitted to a number of officers on duty at the Signal School. "These officers were asked to score the answers, to state the score which would indicate proficiency, and to state whether the soldier was entitled to promotion so far as this subject was concerned."

Now this is what happened—what nearly always happens when we depend on a subjective system of scoring.

Fourteen instructors in the Signal School graded this paper.

Their judgment of the score required for proficiency ranged from 27 points to 35 out of a possible 40.

They varied correspondingly in the relative values on weights which they assigned to different individual questions, in one case from 0 to 5, in another from 0 to 6, and so on.

They exhibited all the inevitable variations of judgments which we might expect, and saddest of all, when it came to the crucial question of whether the sergeant was entitled to his promotion, five officers said "Yes" and nine said "No." Not so bad as majority decisions run, but pretty rough on the person most concerned—namely, the sergeant—if his way led him among the nine rather than the five.

Now the clue out of this labyrinth of antagonistic judgments is by way of standardized tests which may be objectively scored and in which the passing point is determined by trying out the tests on a number of men and setting the scale accordingly. I shall read a sample of a progress test and also of a proficiency test, constructed in such a way that provisional standards may be rather quickly secured.

and rather specific standards determined in a relatively short time.

The following sample of a progress test is taken from a Signal Corps textbook called the "Message Center Specialist," in which instructions are given in various matters having to do with methods of communication, including the use of codes and ciphers. In this progress test the student is first required to perform certain operations which are of the sort that he must actually *do* in practice either in a post or in the field. Thus he is set the following problems:

1. *Directions to the student:* Encode the following message in the DFC-4 code:

No. 2. Date, 4 Jan. 22.

To Co. 1st Brig.

At

At 8.00 A. M. the 2nd Infantry will leave OCHILLE and march to your support. I will arrive at REYNOLDS HILL at 9.30 P. M.
S. T. CO. 1st Div. HOUR SIGNED 7.05 A. M.

2. *Directions to the student:* Decode the following message, using the DFC-4 code:

NR5	1010A	DFC4	RUUT	MYKA
DOIF	CEIDB	AWBI	WUPP	XIWJ
UMAH	OXIW	ZYFK	QOFD	AVWA
MYAJ

For problem 3 the student is required to decode a message in which are included certain groups which are supposed to have been mutilated in sending, and for problem 4 he is required to make use of a mechanical cipher device known as "type M-94." In addition to these *do* problems there are a number of questions which call for information. These information questions are cast in the "new type" forms; that is, use is made of completion questions, multiple choice, true-false, and single-word responses similar to the trade-test models. All of these problems and questions are so devised that the answers must be explicit (and generally brief), and can be scored rapidly and objectively. As a result, standards and norms for rating a class or an individual can be set up rather simply.

It may be very worth while to ask just how these progress tests differ further from the examinations usually given at mid-year, the term end or at other times in any college or high school course. In answer I might say that, first, the time of giving a progress test does not depend so much upon

the calendar or a notice from the registrar's office as it does upon the actual progress which the student or the class is making. In other words, the giving of a progress test is governed only by the amount of ground which has been covered whether that has been slowly or rapidly done, and second, the tests are given more systematically or, perhaps I might say, less spasmodically and intermittently, than tests are sometimes given, and third, the progress tests are either standardized or in process of standardization, by which I mean merely that the scores of a large number of men in different classes and organizations will be available as norms by which to judge the performance of other students anywhere, at any time.

The following sample of a very small part of a proficiency test, is again quoted from the Message Center Specialist. In this particular example an attempt has been made to set up a problem which will have all the desirable qualities of the ordinary new type question, especially in the matters of being readily and objectively scored. In addition, for this particular case a form has been used which is very like some of the newer school tests which measure ability to read, that is we present the student with a definite selection accompanied by a series of questions based on this text and provide him with a specific place to set down each of his answers. The most important point about the problems here quoted is, however, that a very definite draft is made upon the examinee's initiative and resourcefulness. In other words, he is presented with a real "situation" in which he must show something more than mere memory of details. I call attention to this point for the reason that a stock criticism of the new type tests is that they do not make demands on a man's initiative, inventiveness, his power to organize knowledge or material, or to display his mastery of what might be called the architectonics of the subject. The samples which follow may suggest possibilities for developing tests in other fields of knowledge in which more than memory or cleverness in manipulating words or symbols is demanded.

¹ Derived by Major C. N. Sawyer, Signal Corps.

PROFICIENCY TEST NO. 2

PART I

1. *Directions to the student:* Messenger Jones, carrying delivery list No. 6 from the First Brigade on a scheduled trip to regiments of that brigade, was killed. No notification of the fact was sent to the message center, First Brigade, nor did anyone find and deliver the dispatches he had been carrying.

(a) What member of the message center personnel was first aware of the fact that something was wrong with this messenger?

.....
(b) What record indicated that something was wrong?

.....
(c) Just how did the record indicate that something was wrong?

.....
(d) What was the first step taken by the member of the message center to ascertain that something was wrong?

.....
(e) Just what did that person do?

.....
2. *Directions to the student:* Messenger Williams, with delivery list No. 8 from the First Infantry, delivered messages Nos. 9, 10, and 11 to the First Brigade, obtaining the signature "Smith" on the delivery list. He returned to the First Infantry. Later the First Brigade asked by telephone why the casualty list, which was past due, had not arrived. The message center chief of the First Infantry message center was called on to explain the non-delivery of the report, which investigation showed bore his message center serial No. 9. He stated that it had been delivered at 9.30 A. M., and had been receipted for by some one named Smith.....

There is considerably more of this together with the appropriate questions which I need not detail at length, since by this time the general drift and purpose of such problems will be indicated. For this particular proficiency test the student is also required to do and to know a number of other items which may also very well be omitted from the discussion.

It will be noted that considerable stress is put upon performance tests in which a man is asked to *do* something. A performance test differs from other types of tests chiefly in the fact that the student is required to perform some specific act, rather than merely to register, on paper or orally, his knowledge of certain facts or details of information. The

ability to pass a performance test will therefore commonly require that a man demonstrate his skill and dexterity in the use of tools, instruments, machines, or materials. Under certain circumstances such a test might involve a knowledge of technical processes, of administrative or military procedure, or even the ability to lead or direct other men in the performance of a designated task. There is really no limit to the possibilities of such a form of examination.

One of the most interesting developments in the Signal Corps service is a new type of group test, but not a group test in the ordinary use of that term, that is, the sense in which a number of persons are each simultaneously given the same test as in an Alpha examination or a college mid term. This new variety is for a group of men who must act together, not as individuals, but as a unit and who must coordinate or cooperate smoothly and efficiently in order to meet a common objective. One of the simplest examples of such a situation is the case of two soldiers who are trying to communicate with one another by means of a code, a visual signal, a telephone, or a telegraph key and sounder. One of the most complicated examples is that of an army of a million men—infantry, artillery, supply trains, tanks, signal corps units, and all the rest, going into battle.

Group tests for activities of this sort are very much needed in the Army for the reason that soldiers, whatever their individual initiative and resourcefulness may be, are usually called upon to act with other persons, particularly in combat, in order to accomplish a common end.

A recent example of this new type of group test is a proficiency test¹ which measures the efficiency of the telephone sections of a Field Artillery detail.

This test was designed to determine whether or not a telephone section was prepared for active field service and also to determine how any one section compared in efficiency with any other section. Very briefly, what was done was to stake out a measured course to represent the various

¹ Devised by Capt. F. M. Crist, Field Artillery.

positions in which telephones would be set up under field conditions involving an artillery battery, a battalion, a regiment, and a brigade, and then to determine how rapidly and accurately communication could be established and messages transmitted from one part of this somewhat complicated net to another. A careful check could be made on actual messages sent, with the time of sending and reception and the conduct of the various personnel involved in the manipulation of the necessary equipment. Aside from the technical proficiency of the individuals thus measured, the interesting item to me was the possibility of measuring the proficiency of a fairly large number of men functioning together for common purposes. Thus if the full war-time strength of personnel were tested, the number of men involved in this particular case would be: For a battery, 12 men; for a battalion, 1 officer and 19 men; for a regiment, 2 officers and 22 men, and for a brigade, 2 officers and 25 men.

I believe that tests similar to this will one of these days be devised to measure all sorts of civilians in all sorts of situations in which two or more persons must act together for a common purpose, and so far as I know little or nothing has yet been done to develop such tests or even to suggest the necessity for so doing.

There is a good deal of counsel dispensed in school, in business, and in our customary civic relations, "To cooperate," "To play the game," "To function in the group," and so on. Yet we have few real ways of testing this capacity for team play except when we put one college athletic team against another and chalk up the result on the score board; or when we determine the per capita amount raised in a community in a drive for some local charity; or when we scrutinize the community death rate as an index of our common ability to swat the fly, to dispose of our garbage, and otherwise to conform to the standard of the fumigated majority in order that we may, by so doing, promote sanitary living, and, to a certain degree, sanitary dying.

A further extremely important use of the progress test

to simplify considerably the freshman problem for the reason that they would encourage a steady and even performance on the part of students and to a certain extent by so doing would eliminate examination spurts.

They would also make possible, rather early in the freshman year, the reclassification of students according to their demonstrated ability or scholarship. And reclassification of students in colleges will certainly come sooner or later as the complement of so classifying them in elementary schools.

Again progress tests will serve to indicate the dangerous crossings on the main line of academic travel where the largest number of first year fatalities in such subjects as required English, mathematics, or languages are most likely to occur.

Proficiency tests, too, have their possibilities other than those I have hinted at. One of these days we may be able to certify on commencement day, not just that the graduate has satisfied the "requirements" for the A.B. or the B.S., but we may go further and specify that he is quite competent, judged by an extensive and thorough proficiency test, to do certain particular things or to perform definite and invaluable services in the community life into which he will shortly find himself projected. We have certain analogies to such proficiency tests in State medical examinations, the examinations for admission to the bar, and the Civil Service specifications and requirements, and there is no reason why these proficiency tests should not be extended and multiplied. By so doing we shall not be indulging in classification or in testing for their own sakes, but we shall be guaranteeing that the graduate is able to do efficiently certain definite tasks, such, for example, as to translate French or Russian or Japanese of such a degree of difficulty and at such a rate per hour or per day. Again we may certify that a man can perform certain rather complicated mathematical computations at the rate needed by the actuary in a life insurance company, and that he can use the calculus with a certain definite degree of facility, or again that he is competent to

design a bridge or a community center is not an effective leadership

We are just now feeling a certain financial pinch in academic circles. This economic retrogression need not result in a policy that will neglect, belittle or abandon such great agencies for our failures, loss of self-respect, and growing consciousness of all sorts. One of the greatest of these social movements is the subsequent preparation and afterwards the scientific action and the general society of young men and young women who may be graduated for accept and share in the responsibilities of the world around them. In the preparation and the necessary preparation for this higher civil service the following consequences of the Army may suggest most profitable results.

August T. Wilson

Cooperation in Personnel Work

THE MOST necessary next step in the development of student personnel work, from the viewpoint of both the research scholar and the practical administrator, consists in increasing the scale of operations. Small units, involving one college or one high school, or, by a loose and more or less accidental cooperation, two or three schools, are now in "successful" operation, and their number is increasing. We need have no fears about the realization of the potential achievements of such small-scale enterprises. Local personnel offices are here, and they are here to stay. What they have already achieved is sufficient justification for their continued efforts, unhampered and unbacked by larger units, along the manifold lines of service and research which they have initiated.

But while we recognize the value of the autonomy and flexibility of small units and their adequacy for research and services of given types, it seems clear that both their research and immediate-service potentialities are narrowly limited by a lack of cooperation and of coordination of efforts. The problem to which I desire to call attention is fundamentally administrative and organizational. We must organize and pool our efforts on the common essentials and at the same time preserve the freedom, and protect from every kind of duress the initiative, of local units. Fortunately, the freedom of local units seems beyond all danger, and we may devote our undivided efforts to the task of avoiding unnecessary duplications, of getting the basic information by organized economical methods, of instituting common units of measurement, of getting and using reliable information at the right time and place, and of becoming active social agencies with our whole society as our province instead of passive receiving wards which confine their efforts largely

to the individuals that happen to be received in a given locality.

Let us view the task as it presents itself to the Director of Admissions of a modern college. The modern Director of Admissions admits that it is his duty to be an eclectic magnet just as he pleads guilty of having been thus far a somewhat elastic sieve. The true function of the admissions officer is active aggressive selection and not merely passive acceptance of the best of those who choose to apply for admission. From this viewpoint his interest in the capacities and potentialities of students arises long before they apply for admission. If the ideal is to get all students into college who can profit by the college experience, it is obvious that we must know the potentialities of students before they leave high school. We cannot longer assume that the group of candidates for admission includes a satisfactory majority of those who belong in college. The individual student is not competent to decide whether he is college material, and the competence of the high school to advise on this crucial problem at present is largely dissipated by the lack of common units and by the lack of time and place value in such information as they have. The information they have now helps us in educational advice little more than the ice at the North Pole helps us in making our summer days more comfortable in New York or Washington.

There is no clear line separating the spheres of action of the college and high school personnel offices. Neither the college nor the high school can realize its potential personnel work except by a close cooperation with each other. In order to reap the benefits of existing techniques of measurement, imperfect as they are, we must achieve a more extensive and closer harmony of operations and coordination of efforts along personnel lines in the various educational levels from the fifth grade to the senior year in college. A large fraction of the college personnel problem can be solved only in the high school personnel office. From the social viewpoint the duty of the college to advise at the right time the

student who does not belong in college is just as great as that to advise the student who does belong in college. Obviously, the advice not to go to college cannot, or should not, be given in college, because those to whom it is given should never reach college. The inference is clear that a very material part of the present college personnel work ought to be done during the secondary school years for both collegiate and non-collegiate types of students.

The essential elements of a comparative study of this fundamentally important problem seem to me to be the following:

1. The first requisite for a large scale organization is a more workable definition of the word "college." Institutions which pass under this name and which claim equality in the general sense of academic merit and rank actually exhibit enormous differences in subject-matter taught, in efficiency of teaching, in standards of achievement, and in intellectual quality of student bodies. I do not mean that it would be desirable to impose uniform standards in all colleges, granting the possibility of doing such an impossible thing. What we need is not uniformity but comparability, based on accurate empirical description in terms whose meaning is universally understandable. One way of achieving such a description, tentatively, would be by an intelligence and partial educational achievement survey of all the colleges in the country. A fifty-minute intelligence test adapted to the whole range of intelligence actually present in our colleges today could, I believe, easily be prepared; and short examinations of high validity and reliability are now available or may easily be prepared for several of the fundamental collegiate subject-matters, such as modern languages, history, laboratory sciences, and elementary mathematics. The information which such an inclusive survey would afford would be of incalculable value to both research scholars and administrators; and when we add to this the enormous stimulation of thought and dissemination of ideas that would take place it seems clear that the project would more than pay for itself.

2. Coordinate with the survey of the colleges, in point of importance, is the problem of learning what proportion of the high school graduates who could profit by college work gets into college. We know that a good many get into college who do not for one reason or another make a go of it; but we do not know how many never get in who could and would make a valuable experience of it.

3. A third requisite would be the adoption of the same or of comparable scales of measurement throughout all parts of the country, and the adoption of a uniform grading system for all extramural purposes. For intramural and local purposes the loosely defined system of letter grades A, B, C, etc., or Passed and Failed, or of personal opinions, may be held intact as before; but in so far as possible every student ought also to be rated on the national as well as on the local code. The majority of local systems of measurement have thus far defied the greatest decoding experts among our statisticians.

4. It may be said, with regard to boys of collegiate caliber who do not come to college, that you can lead the mule to the watering trough but cannot make him drink. This is undoubtedly true and I would be the last to condone coercion or duress of any sort; but there are many who could not only be led to the fountain but who would drink deep in the Pierian spring, who under the present system are lost in the shuffle. Scholarships should be given on an absolute scale of merit, and the scholarships ought to go in search of holders rather than be sought after merely.

5. Another objective which will greatly aid in giving a great personnel organization a more valid initial direction is that of drawing up a tentative statement of the chronological age and school grade at which each type of educational and vocational advice should be given. For example, when should the question of higher education and type of higher education be answered?

6. One of the very important research problems that will be furthered by a large scale personnel organization is that concerned with the growth of intelligence after the fifteenth

year, and the part which the college plays in that development?

7. The main functions of a large scale educational personnel organization such as I hope to see realized would be the securing and making available of the basic information on which all personnel work depends, more especially information which depends on objective measurements, and intelligence and defined achievement. I should not, in fact, oppose limiting the activity of such an organization, for a time at least, to measurements which are highly objective and highly reliable. Other types of data are of uncertain value, are very expensive, and their construction possibilities might easily swamp an initial organization. Directly stated this main function would involve giving facts of intelligence and achievement to high school students all over the country each year, and making the results available for use at the proper time and place, and keeping them so available.

The organization for carrying out such a study would probably consist of a three fold hierarchy: the central office to hold the organization together, to determine policies, to select the tests to be used, and to act as a general clearing house; the regional record offices conducting one or two states each, and under the direction of some University Registrar or Director of Admissions, would receive and score all tests, and record and distribute the results in a way prescribed by the central office, and finally, the examining centers, which would have no permanent staff. Until the organization passed through the experimental stage it would have to be financed at least partly by appropriations, but it would undoubtedly become self-supporting just as existing examination agencies have, and almost certainly at lower rates to the students.

HAR WOOD.

A United Attack on Personnel Problems

A NUMBER of interesting meetings have recently been held to discuss problems of personnel administration in colleges and industries. A brief summary of these follows:

The Division of Educational Relations of the National Research Council met on Tuesday, April 29, to discuss progress of its project of the gifted student. Dean Seashore, who has been visiting colleges in connection with this study, gave a brief summary of results. He called attention to the Bulletins issued by the Research Council describing the requirements for different types of careers. He indicated how the study of the gifted student had begun with gifted seniors, had found it necessary to consider means of discovering gifted freshmen, and had finally recognized that its problem is really the general personnel problem of selection and guidance of all students.

The main topics under discussion in this study are: The giving of objective or new type college entrance tests to all high school seniors for the purpose of determining the probability of their success in college or higher professional courses; the provision of proper exits at the end of two or three years that would enable students to withdraw with certificates of proficiency in definite lines; the development of placement examinations or aptitude tests to determine the major subjects that students might study with profit; the sectioning of classes on the basis of ability; the placing of the ablest teachers in charge of the first year students; the development of orientation courses as introductions to the humanities or to science; the further extension of honors systems; the better keeping of character records

and personality charts; the establishment of personnel officers and a personnel service in colleges; the making of job analyses of courses of instruction and of the institution as a whole.

The attention of the meeting was called to the fact that there are numerous agencies working in this field without coordination. In the Research Council itself there are the Division of Psychology and Anthropology, the Committee on College Entrance Tests, the Conference on Vocational Guidance, the Personnel Research Federation, and the Highway Research Committee, which has just published a report on the qualifications of highway engineers as a Bulletin of the National Research Council. Similarly the American Council on Education has an active Committee on Standards; the National Board on Personnel Classification is working on the same problem both in industry and in educational institutions; the American Management Association is also studying this subject; and the National Association for Vocational Guidance is stimulating this work in school systems.

On April 30 and May 1, the Standards Committee of the American Council on Education met and considered this problem of measurement of human achievement by objective standards and the use of such measurements in determining college credit. As a result of this two-day session, the Committee requested the American Council to enlarge the powers of the Committee to include a continuing study of the development and practical operation of various types of tests and standards. The Committee also recommended that the American Council on Education open negotiations with other agencies in this field for the purpose of bringing about better coordination of effort. These recommendations were approved by the Council at its meeting on May 3d, and the Director was instructed to open negotiations with other agencies operating in this field of personnel administration and research for the purpose of securing better co-operative action.

Pursuant to its policy of encouraging industries to work toward a standard terminology and job specifications for occupational specialists, the War Department and the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, have organized a joint committee which is working toward the development of common procedure in this field. The War Department is likewise cooperating in this matter with the Civil Service Commission, the Bureau of the Census, and several other Government departments. This work promises to assume large proportions in the near future with reference to selection, classification and assignment of Federal employees, because of the passage of the Personnel Classification Bill providing for a classification of Federal Employees on the basis of job specifications. The Civil Service Commission has also established a Research Division which is ready to cooperate with other similar agencies in this general field.

On May 9 and 10 a conference on vocational guidance was held at the National Research Council. The Personnel Research Federation also met on May 10 and a joint meeting of these two was held on the evening of May 10. This group unanimously adopted a report recommending that the Research Council take the initiative in establishing a central bureau for encouragement and coordination of personnel research for college students. Such a bureau should serve the colleges as headquarters from which they can secure test blanks, record blanks and expert guidance in local experiments. It would be a central office to which all colleges making experiments in personnel methods could report in order that their results might be coordinated with those of other schools. To this bureau they could appeal for interpretation of results, for suggestions concerning new experiments, for advice on the best organization for administering college personnel systems, and for mutual help in developing more reliable methods of vocational guidance.

The National Research Council has appointed a committee to formulate a specific plan for carrying out these recommendations. The committee has organized with Dean

Hawkes of Columbia as chairman and has gone to work.

That there is a practical demand for such a central agency for cooperation in personnel work is evidenced by the fact that the personnel directors of five institutions—Chicago, Dartmouth, Minnesota, Northwestern and Princeton—voluntarily compiled a combination test for college freshmen and asked the American Council on Education to make it available to all colleges that desire to take part in a cooperative test of the test. The test blank has been edited and instructions for its use prepared by Dr. L. L. Thurston of Chicago, and some 25,000 copies have been distributed to sixty colleges. Each college will correlate the findings of the test with student performance in college during the coming year and report results next June to the Council for compilation and analysis.

This kind of cooperation in personnel experiments, besides supplying the large number of students needed to make the results significant, brings valuable benefits to the participating institutions themselves. Because the field is new, each cooperator is both a teacher and a student, growing in mastery of educative processes by the best method yet discovered—training on the job. Since all are contributors to the creation of better methods of dealing with students, all are interested in trying out the results so that sounder and more rapid progress is made.

A number of important educational studies are just starting. Each will pay some attention to the newer methods of objective tests, comprehensive examinations, and other standards of achievement. Among these may be mentioned the comprehensive study of the entire American School Program by a commission appointed by the National Education Association; the study of engineering education under the auspices of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, financed by the Carnegie Corporation; the Study of the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages just initiated under the American Council on Education, financed by the Carnegie Corporation; the Study of the Teaching

of English, under the American Council on Education, financed by the General Education Board; the development of international exchange of students, which depends for its success on proper appraisal of credits for school work. All of these studies and others of like nature will secure much better results for the time and money expended if their studies of standards and personnel methods could be guided by suggestions from some competent central agency that is working to bring coordination out of the infinitely scattered efforts in this field.

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Editor.

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